

Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education

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Integrating Content and Language

Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education

Edited by **Robert Wilkinson** and **Vera Zegers**,
Maastricht University, the Netherlands



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Robert Wilkinson & Vera Zegers (ed.).
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Realizing Content and Language Integration
in Higher Education

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On the same theme

Books available from Maastricht University Language Centre

Researching Content and Language Integration in Higher Education

Edited by Robert Wilkinson and Vera Zegers (2007). Maastricht: Maastricht University Language Centre.

ISBN: 978 90 5625 269 4

Selected peer-reviewed papers from the ICLHE 2006 Conference

Contents: **Charles van Leeuwen** (Netherlands): Preface; **Robert Wilkinson & Vera Zegers** (Netherlands): Introduction; **David Crystal** (Wales): Towards a philosophy of language management; **Cecilia Jacobs** (South Africa): Integrating Content and Language: Whose job is it anyway?; **Carmen Argondizzo, Anna Maria De Bartolo, & Y.L.Teresa Ting** (Italy): ICLHE: are those who might, willing and prepared? A quantitative survey and an in-depth qualitative analysis of case studies of ICL attempts in the university context; **Glenn Ole Hellekjaer** (Norway): The Implementation of Undergraduate Level English Medium Programs in Norway: An Explorative Case Study; **Jennifer Wright** (South Africa): Key themes emerging from co-authoring during a content and language integration project; **Radha Gangaram Panday, Maaïke Hajer, & José Beijer** (Netherlands): Challenges in integrating academic and professional language competencies in the curriculum in Higher Education; **Nohora Bryan Zambrano & Ezana Eyassu Habte-Gabr** (Colombia): Strategies for teaching geography electives in English to native Spanish speakers at a Colombian university; **Alan Jones & Sheelagh McCracken** (Australia): Teaching the discourse of legal risk to finance professionals: Foundations for a linguistically scaffolded curriculum; **Jason Miin-Hwa Lim** (Malaysia): 'Recommending Further Research': A Pedagogically Motivated Analysis of Linguistic Mechanisms and Rhetorical Functions; **John Airey & Cedric Linder** (Sweden): Disciplinary learning in a second language: a case study from Swedish university physics; **Gülcan Erçetin & Cem Alptekin** (Turkey): Integrating Language and Content: An Experimental Study; **Àngels Pinyana & Sarah Khan** (Spain): Integrating content and language: the student's perspective; **Barbara Loranc-Paszyk** (Poland): Evaluation of foreign language achievement based upon a CLIL programme in tertiary education: a Polish perspective; **Ute Smit** (Austria): Writing in English as a lingua franca (ELF) in international higher education; **Stella Williams & Beverly-Anne Carter** (Trinidad): "This is not English." Setswana speakers at a Caribbean Medical School; **Tim Caudery** (Denmark), **Margrethe Petersen** (Denmark), & **Philip Shaw** (Sweden): The Language Environments of Exchange Students at Scandinavian Universities.

Bridging the Assessment Gap in English-Medium Higher Education

ed. Robert Wilkinson, Charles van Leeuwen, and Vera Zegers. (2006). Bochum: AKS-Verlag. ISBN Germany 3-925453-49-0 ISBN Netherlands 90-5625-229-1

Contents: *Prologue* **Charles van Leeuwen** (Netherlands). From assessment anecdotes to learning practices; *Introduction* **Robert Wilkinson & Vera Zegers** (Netherlands). The eclectic nature of assessment issues in content and language integrated higher education. *Section 1: Entry competences* **Glenn Ole Hellekjaer** (Norway). Screening criteria for English-medium programmes: A case study; **Robert Wilkinson & Vera Zegers** (Netherlands). Assessing incipient linguistic competences: An institutional perspective; **Zsuzsa Kurtán** (Hungary). On assessing students' entry competences for English-medium higher education programmes in Hungary; **Marie-Thérèse Claes** (Thailand). Student competences at entry into higher education in Thailand. *Section 2: Throughput competences* **Kari Smith** (Norway): Motivating learning through assessment; **Christine Räisänen** (Sweden): Assessing assessment from an activity theory perspective; **Cecilia Jacobs** (South Africa): Integrated assessment practices - when language and content lecturers collaborate. *Section 3: Exit competences* **Joyce Kling** (Denmark). Evaluating foreign language skills in communication in management: Application of CEF criteria. *Section 4: Assessing mother tongue competence* **Enlli Môn Thomas** (Wales): Teaching and assessing psychology through a minority language: lessons from Wales; **Marta Chromá** (Czech Republic): Assessing linguistic awareness in Czech legal education – a case of neglect? **Christa van der Walt** (South Africa): Assessing bilingual competence: a case for bi- and multilingual education environments. *Section 5: Assessing staff competences in English* **Renate Klaassen** (Netherlands) & **Anne Räsänen** (Finland). Assessment and staff development in higher education for English-medium instruction: A question-raising article; **Anne Räsänen** (Finland) & **Renate Klaassen** (Netherlands). From learning outcomes to staff competences in integrated content and language instruction at the higher education level. *Epilogue* **Jasone Cenoz** (Spain). Across the assessment gap: Challenges for practice and research.

Integrating Content and Language: Meeting the Challenge of a Multilingual Higher Education

ed. Robert Wilkinson. (2004). Maastricht: Universitaire Pers Maastricht. ISBN 9052784191

Proceedings of the 2003 ICLHE Conference

Contents Robert Wilkinson (Netherlands): Introduction.

Part 1: Plenaries **Geert Hofstede** (Netherlands): Culture and Language; **Paul Holdsworth** (European Commission): EU policy on language learning and linguistic diversity as it relates to content and language integrated learning and higher education; **Jo Ritzen** (Netherlands): Across the bridge: Towards an international university; **Anita Lehtikoinen** (Finland): Foreign-language-medium education as national strategy; **Heinz-L. Nastansky** (Germany): National strategy in the internationalisation of higher education: The German perspective; **Vijay Bhatia** (Hong Kong, China): Academic literacy in higher education; **Kari Smith** (Israel): Studying in an additional language: What is gained, what is lost, what is assessed.

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programmes, and courses for technical translators; **Viktor Slepovitch** (Belarus): Content as Part of Teaching Business Communication in English; **Christine Winberg** (South Africa): Language, content and context in the education of architects; **Kris Van de Poel** (Belgium): Contextualised language learning in a theoretically and methodologically pluralistic CALL design (The case of LINC); **Rainer Prokisch** (Netherlands): Teaching international tax law in a foreign language; **Sophie Cacciaguidi-Fahy** (Ireland): The case for cases in teaching legal French; **Francis Note & Inge Lanslots** (Belgium): Non-traditional Learners and self-access; **Michael Whitburn** (Belgium): The Chinese website: a cooperative scheme to help Chinese students on postgraduate courses at the Free University of Brussels (VUB) improve their English language skills; **Marion Troia** (Netherlands): Collaborative advising: factors involved in advising students on an interdisciplinary independent writing assignment; **Cristina Escobar Urmeneta & Carmen Perez-Vidal** (Spain): Teacher education for the implementation of a Content and Language Integrated Learning approach (CLIL) in the school system.

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ed. Charles van Leeuwen and Robert Wilkinson. (2003). Nijmegen: Valkhof Pers, & Universiteit Maastricht. ISBN 9056251600

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Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education

Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education

Introduction*

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1. Integration of content and language

The integration of content and language is a challenge in any form of education. In primary and secondary education the challenge often confronts a single teacher who has to combine both content learning goals and language learning goals. For the learners it is a challenge because they have to cope with not only their unfamiliarity with the content-to-be-learned but also with new language exponents. The latter will include both the language related to the content, but also instructional language related both to general didactics and to the specific didactics of the content subject. The instructional language in a secondary school physics class will not be the same as that in a history class, for example. In general, although the physics or the history teacher may seek help from language experts, including fellow teachers, these challenges tend to reside at the level of the individual teacher who aims to stimulate the learners to achieve the double goals. This is the familiar environment in which content and language integrated learning or CLIL is realized.

In higher education, the situation is radically different. Having made their choice of field or fields to study, students find themselves rapidly confronted with a constantly growing array of aspects, topics, or subjects, which may change quite rapidly, even during the time of a bachelor's degree in some disciplines. Students are confronted with a body of knowledge in a discipline, which is by and large accepted, but not unchallenged, by the members of the disciplinary community; but they are also confronted with many areas where knowledge is in the process of being constructed, where there are disputes between schools of thought, and where there are differences of opinion as to where the boundaries of the discipline lie. Students in effect learn to become members of a

* Wilkinson, R. & Zegers, V. (2008). Introduction. In: Wilkinson, R. & Zegers, V. (eds.). *Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education*. Maastricht: Maastricht University., pp1-9.

disciplinary community, with its rights of passage, obligations, duties, and privileges; and they learn to recognize the explicit and the tacit ways of behaviour incumbent upon a member of the community.

The disciplinary community thus comprises the novices (the students) and the academic and professional staff (some members indeed migrate between several different communities). Students as emerging members of the disciplinary do not learn from a single teacher, but from many. The many are not only the teachers the students are assigned to, but any others they encounter during their studies, including while on placement. In this context it is up to the student to analyse what they come face to face with, synthesize the different sources of input, and transform the knowledge acquired into their own cognitive constructions. Students in higher education are thus confronted with many teachers and many sources of knowledge.

The knowledge can reside in resources in many different languages and many different cultures, and the disciplinary communities do not stop at the borders of language communities. Students have to learn not only to acquire their learning through their mother tongue and ‘national community’, but also through second languages and other communities, whether they are foreign or indigenous. Students may discover that they need to acquire knowledge of languages they had not even considered at the start of their studies.

This broad context for learning reflects contemporary trends in education, society, and technology, trends such as the broadening of access to higher education, autonomous learning, life-long learning, individual responsibility, mobility, equity, globalization, and the ways technology is changing information searching, storage and sharing. On the one hand, current trends suggest a wish to communicate easily with anyone, anywhere; hence, it may imply learning through a widely-spoken language, which may underlie the recent emergence at universities across the world of English-taught degree programmes, especially Master’s programmes (e.g. in Europe see Wächter & Maiworm, 2008). The growing importance of China is likely to lead to an increase in Chinese programmes and Chinese-medium programmes in other countries (cf. Gill, 2007; Huang, 2007). On the other hand, most students are likely to find work where they need to communicate effectively with the local population, whether they are working as doctors, nurses, lawyers, technologists, engineers, accountants, or business entrepreneurs. The localization of the application of knowledge and learning would seem to be critical to the value of higher education programmes. This would imply the need to enhance the ability of students to communicate in not only their native language, but other languages too. Both developments have an impact on universities.

Universities, as implied by the very word, have always been concerned with the international, whether as the object of their academic enquiry or whether as part of the process of learning. Collaboration with colleagues in other institutions is a basis for most academics, including through staff exchanges, academic visits, and congresses. In the past thirty years, in particular, this

collaboration has expanded to include students, many of whom now spend part of their studies at a foreign university (e.g. via the European Union's Erasmus or Erasmus Mundus programmes) – and we are concerned not simply with students of languages. More recently, universities have been collaborating in partnerships with joint-degree programmes, particularly where students spend two semesters or more at one partner university, then move to another to continue their studies. More universities are offering programmes via the internet, which may make the location of the students irrelevant. All of these developments strengthen the case for providing content learning through another language.

While universities may see much to gain in, for example, providing programmes in English which could attract talented and highly motivated students from across the world, they cannot ignore the challenges that arise in specific fields, especially applied fields. Medicine is perhaps the best known example. Doctors have to be able to interact with their patients in their own language, but this applies also during training. If the education is provided in English in a non-English-speaking country in order to attract foreign students, how can the university assure effective competence in the graduates in patient-related skills? Moreover, how can a university assure such competence in the mother tongue of the foreign students to certify that they can apply their skills in that language assuming they return to their home country? Perhaps solutions lie in collaborative agreements with institutions in the home countries. A second challenge lies in the development of competences in practitioners working with local language communities (minority or ethnic languages); integrated content and language training can play a critical role here too (cf. Thomas, 2006). A third challenge may stem from the trend in cooperation between professional institutions across borders. For example, hospitals in different countries are increasingly developing collaboration in specializations, sometimes involving the transfer of patients; health insurance organizations too increasingly allow patients to travel to other countries for treatment. There will be a demand for effective communication. These challenges suggest that universities ought to have a vested interest in developing integrated programmes that stimulate students (and the staff teaching them) to acquire both content and language competences concurrently.

2. ICLHE conference

In 2006 Maastricht University hosted the second conference on Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE). One of the aims was to stimulate researchers and practitioners to investigate the approaches, design and implementation of courses and programmes which involve both the learning of content and language. It had been noted at the first conference (at Maastricht in 2003) (Wilkinson, 2004a) that there was a lack of good research evidence on which to ground the establishment of integrated content and language programmes (Wilkinson, 2004b). The ICLHE 2006

conference resulted in a publication (Wilkinson & Zegers, 2007) comprising sixteen papers focusing on the current developments in research covering language management, collaboration between staff, integration in design and the development of literacies, cross-country comparative studies, the development of writing, and the integration of exchange students within such ICLHE programmes.

The present collection of papers from the ICLHE conference at Maastricht in 2006 presents examples of how course designers and teachers have attempted to realize the integration of content and language within particular programmes. The first paper includes the plenary address by Waldemar Martyniuk, then of the Council of Europe, in which he stresses the role that content and language integrated learning (CLIL) has in establishing a plurilingual culture in Europe. Plurilingualism is distinguished from multilingualism in that the former stresses the ability of the individual to speak two or more languages; the latter refers to the community, organizational, or national level where there are speakers of different languages, but some (even many) speakers may be monolingual. The importance of CLIL is underlined by its claim to enable learners to acquire the thinking and learning of academic content in a second language. In higher education, this learning process gains in complexity¹ (as indicated above).

The first part of the book, *Realizing Integration*, comprises five papers treating the integration of content and language from different perspectives. In describing a project for English-medium courses in order to attract Erasmus students, Inmaculada Fortanet (Spain) presents the process of collaboration between content and language staff and the questions that arose to be resolved. The issues indicate the challenges faced by an institution that aims to introduce teaching of content through another language in an existing programme that is in the local language. Renate Klaassen (Netherlands) describes a training programme to stimulate lecturers to engage in effective teaching in English-medium instruction. Klaassen investigates the impact of the training through a follow-up evaluation, noting that while awareness is the first step, English-medium instruction will only get the attention it deserves when a university is compelled to act to strengthen teaching quality as a result of social pressure and of globalizing forces. From a different perspective, Marie Myers (Canada) reports a study of code-switching between languages among students in teaching training learning being taught through the medium of French, their second language. Myers concludes that code-switching is beneficial for improved second language development when the language is required specialized purposes. Selma Karabinar (Turkey) investigated the effect of different forms of content-language integration on the students' academic self-concept. Her study finds no difference in the students' self-concept when comparing fully integrated English-medium universities and partially integrated (universities which use a mix of both Turkish-medium and English-medium). The final paper in this part by Ton Koenraad, Maaïke Hajer, Geke Hootsen and Rintse van der Werf (Netherlands) takes a different perspective, looking at ways in which technology can help promote the integration of both

content learning and language development, through the development of a linguistically scaffolded curriculum. Moreover, the paper looks at the enhancement of Dutch proficiency in content learning, which could assist native speakers of Dutch as well as second-language learners.

The second part comprises four papers loosely grouped under the heading *Realizing Culture*. The papers here, implicitly or explicitly, treat ways in which national culture or institutional culture may influence the scope or practice of establishing content and language integrated programmes. The first contribution by Richard Alexander (Austria) presents the broad scope of English-medium programmes in the German-speaking world (Germany and Austria). The paper questions who actually benefits from English-medium programmes, and concludes with a call for further research into the macro-social effects. Alan Brady (Japan), on the other hand, considers the challenges facing any Japanese university wishing to set up programmes in English, and argues a role for civic education as a possible model for universities wishing to start integrated programmes in a foreign language. Narrowing the perspective to one particular institution, Ruth Breeze (Spain) looks at the training of academic writing in bilingual degrees at her own university. The paper shows how the educational teaching paradigm changes if the instructional language changes, and illustrates this through a writing training course. In the last paper in this part, Rosemary Sansome and Rosalind Davies (UK) provides an example of a British university that has developed a special content-based programme to facilitate the integration of international students in first-year undergraduate programmes. The paper underscores the close collaboration between content staff and tutors of EAP (English for Academic Purposes).

Realizing Specific Language groups four papers in part 3. Here the focus lies on how language is used to express specific disciplinary content or in specific contexts. Applying an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach, Jason Miin-Hwa Lim (Malaysia) has analysed the specific language of recommendations in a corpus of discussion sections in management research articles. On the basis of a detailed linguistic analysis of the language used and a wealth of examples, he concludes, naturally, with recommendations for practice for writers, including novices (students). In the second paper in this part, Joan Friedenberg and Mark Schneider (USA) report the design and results of an application of sheltered instruction in sociology as a means to assist students to access specific language and concepts. The principles of sheltered instruction, the authors contend, have applications in other countries. In their study, international (ESL) students outperformed native speakers of English on content knowledge. Marie Myers (Canada) presents a study of the implementation of innovative activities for content and language learning to promote collaboration in the context of French as a second language. She concludes that developing critical thinking competences in a second language is a necessary target of integrated content and language learning, but likely takes longer to acquire than it does in the mother tongue. The paper by Elena Tarasheva (Bulgaria) may be seen as content-based

instruction, where the goal is the learning of language. In her study she reports on the use of media as the content for in a course for learning English. She suggests that language learning is enhanced through explicit focus on content.

Of the four papers in the final part, *Realizing Assessment and Evaluation*, the first focuses on assessment. Joyce Kling and Lise-Lotte Hjulmand (Denmark) present a project designed to assess that language proficiency of academics providing English-medium instruction. Language assessment based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001) is designed to assure the quality of the instruction, and could become as obligatory tool for this purpose. Kevin Haines and Angela Ashworth (Netherlands) look at the use of reflection as a semi-structured tool to enhance students' evaluation of their learning in an content and language integrated programme. The project enables learners to evaluate their language development in the situated context of the academic or disciplinary community of which they are emerging members. In the third paper, Michelle Mellion (Netherlands) evaluates the processes involved in the establishment and subsequent demise of an English-medium programme in Business Administration. Using a model of analysis of conditions, competences, and commitment, she illustrates the risk to foreign-language-medium programmes if they are not adequately supported within the institution. In a descriptive paper concluding this section, Vera Zegers (Netherlands) evaluates the scope of English-language support in a programme in European Studies. While highlighting the need for close collaboration between content teachers and language teachers, she illustrates a pattern of reduced explicit language support over time; this may be a feature of programmes as they become established.

3. Content, mother tongue, and research

The categories under which we have grouped the papers are very general – the papers could equally as well have been categorized differently. One risk of categorizing a paper under a specific heading is that the paper gets pigeon-holed as such. This is not our intention. However, much the same can be said about the approaches to content and language integrated learning. Related work appears under many different terms: for example, immersion programmes, content-based instruction, CLIL, ICLHE, learning through an additional language, and for English, English-medium instruction (EMI). Each term has connotations, which the authors of papers may or may not wish to be associated with. However, whatever the term, it is noteworthy that most attention is focused on the purported added benefit of the integrated approach to language acquisition. So far, little attention has been given to the benefits to the acquisition of content knowledge and skills.

Several studies suggest that content knowledge may be less when learned through a foreign language as compared with learning through the mother tongue (e.g. Jochems, 1991; Dijcks, Dolmans, & Glatz, 2001; see also Airey & Linder, 2006, 2007). Generally, comparative studies

compare one or a few courses in English with parallel courses in the mother tongue – often where the rest of the programme is in the mother tongue. It is difficult to compare a whole programme in two languages because there are too many confounding factors (different students, different teaching staff, different materials, for instance). Indeed, it may not be possible to demonstrate a reliable effect on content in such comparisons, as they are often comparing unlike with unlike.

What is striking, however, is the dominance of one language, English, as the instructional language in many integrated contexts in higher education. This phenomenon is well known (e.g. Phillipson, 2003; Carli & Ammon, 2007). It is striking that of the 19 papers in this collection, one relates to Dutch as the medium of instruction, two to French, one to Turkish and English, but fully 14 to English either as medium of instruction or as the language to be learned. In the earlier proceedings of the same conference (Wilkinson & Zegers, 2007), 12 of the 16 papers related to English², two relate to English and Swedish (and Danish), and one to Dutch. In the proceedings of the 2003 conference (Wilkinson, 2004a), 26 of the 48 papers concerned English as medium of instruction or as the object of study, one each concerned French and German, (the remaining papers concerned principally educational policy and strategy). While the ratio may reflect the nature of the conferences and the possible bias towards English, it would seem to concord with the findings for English-medium instruction in European universities (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008).

These two issues raise challenges for future research. First, if courses and programmes are to be offered through the medium of a foreign or second language, it should be possible to demonstrate that content learning is not adversely affected. It may be that the content learned is different from that which students would have learned had they studied in their mother tongue. Research is thus needed to identify the effects of language on content learning. If only negative effects can be observed, then the longer-term outlook for content learning through a foreign language may be at risk. Simply demonstrating positive effects on language learning may be insufficient.

The second area for research concerns languages other than English. It may not be productive simply to bemoan the fact that English predominates in integrated content and language programmes (as in other areas of scientific discourse). What is required is research into the impact that foreign-language-medium instruction has on the ability of students to communicate content knowledge in their mother tongue. It may be that linguistic goals of higher education have to be set as mother tongue plus English as a language of international communication; knowing additional languages may remain an optional extra. Research is also required into the effectiveness of programmes which are run through the medium of a foreign language other than English. The examples of such programmes established across linguistic fault lines are valuable, and, if accompanied by cost-effectiveness studies, may help to inform institutions further away about the viability of other-medium programmes or courses. It would be most informative if cost-benefit

studies could show the relative value of other-language-medium programmes compared to both English-medium instruction and mother-tongue instruction (cf. Grin, 2002). That would provide direction for both institutions and prospective students.

The further research required should not involve only those from a linguistic perspective but also those from the academic disciplines which propose, design and implement educational programmes in a foreign language. Research in content and language integrated programmes does attract linguists (Smit, 2008), who arguably have an explicit vested interest in the outcomes. The insight obtained from research guided by the disciplinary specialists concerned may help to provide more solid evidence on which to make decisions of institutional educational policy and practice.

Notes

¹ Jeroen van Merriënboer (Open University of the Netherlands) also gave a plenary address about instructional design for complex learning, entitled “Learning and teaching in the integrated curriculum”. In his address he related the complexity of learning content and learning through another language to the difficulties students have in synthesizing the information they have learned. He situated the integrated learning of content and language within the model he has developed for training complex cognitive skills in technical disciplines – the four-component instructional design model (4C/ID) (van Merriënboer, 1997). A recent description of the model (van Merriënboer, Clark, & de Croock, 2007) is available at http://www.cogtech.usc.edu/publications/clark_4cid.pdf or from the Open University: <http://www.ou.nl/eCache/DEF/17/857.html>

² The opening plenary given by David Crystal, “Towards a philosophy of language management”, also used English as the example, although there is no reason why the philosophical principles for language management could not be applied to any language (Crystal, 2007). David Crystal’s plenary is also available at http://www.davidcrystal.com/David_Crystal/death.htm.

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Plenary

CLIL – at the core of plurilingual education?*

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1. Introduction

Educational approaches where the development of knowledge and skills related to the content (subject) of learning and teaching and to the language used for instruction are integrated draw renewed attention within the work of the Council of Europe on languages. In fact, these approaches may be placed at the core of the concept of plurilingual education as developed and promoted by the Council's Language Policy Division. This text aims at illustrating this in brief.

2. Council of Europe and language education

The Council of Europe is a political intergovernmental organisation whose work aims at protecting and promoting democracy, human rights, and the rule of law. Founded in 1949, today it counts 46 member states. The main bodies of the Council are the Committee of Ministers, the Parliamentary Assembly, the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe, and the European Court of Human Rights. The co-operation of the member states is co-ordinated by the Secretariat of the Council based in Strasbourg, France.

The Council of Europe has been active in the area of language education for almost fifty years now. Its projects are carried out by two complementary units: the Language Policy Division in Strasbourg and the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) in Graz, Austria. The Division in Strasbourg focuses on instruments and initiatives for the development and analysis of language education policy for the countries which have ratified the European Cultural Convention and provides a forum for debate on policy development. The Centre in Graz, established in 1995, has as its mission the implementation of language policies and the promotion of innovative approaches. Its strategic objectives include the practice of modern language learning and teaching and the training of multipliers.

* Martyniuk, W. (2008). CLIL – at the core of plurilingual education? In: Wilkinson, R. & Zegers, V. (eds.). *Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education*. Maastricht: Maastricht University., pp13-18.

The first major Council of Europe Project in Modern Languages (1963-1972) promoted international co-operation on audio-visual methods and the development of applied linguistics. In the 1970s the feasibility of a unit-credit scheme for language learning in adult education was examined. A notional-functional model for specifying objectives was elaborated and exemplified in a *Threshold Level* for English and a *Niveau-Seuil* for French, with several other languages to follow. Throughout the 1980s the guiding principles of the notional-functional models provided the basis for a reform of national curricula, for better language teaching methods (textbooks, multimedia courses), and for forms of assessment.

In the dynamic 1990s, with several countries from Central and Eastern Europe re-joining a common Europe, a Modern Language Project on *Language Learning for European Citizenship* was carried out to get a grip on the new language (learning) situation. The results of a concluding conference in 1997 in Strasbourg led to Recommendation No. R (98) 6 of the Committee of Ministers Concerning Modern Languages. It emphasised intercultural communication and plurilingualism as key policy goals and set out concrete measures for each educational sector in Europe. The Council of Europe's concept of plurilingualism focuses on the ability and the right of individual people living in contemporary multilingual societies in Europe to learn and to use a variety of languages to a diversified degree of competence in relation to each language and skill (language proficiency profile).

3. Policy instruments and initiatives

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR)

The CEFR was officially published in 2001, the European Year of Languages. It quickly turned out to be one of the most influential publications of the last decade in the field of language learning, teaching and especially language testing in Europe and elsewhere. The aim of the CEFR is to promote transparency and coherence in language education in a comprehensive way. The document offers a *Descriptive Scheme* for reflecting on what is involved in language use and in language learning and teaching. Parameters in the *Descriptive Scheme* include: skills, competences, strategies, activities, domains, and conditions and constraints that determine language use. The system of *Common Reference Levels* consists of scales of illustrative descriptors that provide global and detailed specifications of language proficiency at a set of levels for the different parameters of the *Descriptive Scheme*. Through the CEFR, learners, teachers, examiners, administrators, policy makers, and educational institutions are stimulated to refer their efforts to a common European framework. In order to facilitate co-operation between educational institutions in Europe and to provide a basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications, the CEFR can be used in the planning of content syllabus of

examinations and the specification of assessment criteria. It is also meant to be used in policy making as a means of ensuring coherence and transparency through the different sectors or stages in language education. Many European countries have used the opportunity of the appearance of the Framework to stimulate curriculum and examination reforms in various educational sectors.

Relating examinations to the CEFR levels

In order to facilitate the process of the comparability and mutual recognition of language competences and qualifications in Europe, the Language Policy Division introduced a pilot scheme to assist examination providers in establishing reliable links with the CEFR levels. A *Manual for Relating Examinations to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* together with illustrative examination material is being developed for this purpose.

Reference Descriptions for national/regional languages

Influenced by the appearance of the language neutral CEFR, the previous model of ‘Threshold Level’ and other related descriptions is now being enriched and extended by the application of the CEFR scheme in the elaboration of Reference Descriptions for planning teaching and assessment for specific languages, for example German, Czech, French, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, etc.

The European Language Portfolio (ELP)

The ELP was developed in a pilot scheme in the late 1990s and introduced to a wider target group in 2001. It is a personal document which allows the owner to show achievements and competences in different languages, at any level, in an internationally transparent manner, and to record significant contacts with other cultures. It is designed to promote plurilingualism by enhancing motivation and support for improved and lifelong language learning.

Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe

In the Guide, elaborated in the follow-up to the European Year of Languages 2001, the primary focus is shifted from the conditions for successful language teaching and learning to the social and political implications of language education for plurilingualism. The Guide describes how language education policy can be based on an inclusive and coherent approach to education for plurilingualism. It is concerned with the whole of language education, including education in the ‘mother tongue/first language’ when it is the official and/or national language of the area in question as well as with ‘foreign’, ‘second’ or ‘minority’ languages. The Guide addresses issues related to

diversification in the offer of languages in the curriculum and to a global approach to language education.

Language Education Policy Profiles

Expert assistance at international level is available to all the member states of the Council wishing to reflect upon their language education policy. The aim is to offer countries, regions, or municipalities the opportunity to undertake a self-evaluation of their policy in a spirit of dialogue with Council of Europe experts, with a view to possible future policy developments. Developing a Language Education Policy Profile does not mean external evaluation. It is a process of reflection by the authorities together with Council of Europe experts who have the function of acting as catalysts. The scope of the Profile includes analysis of language education as a whole. The reports for the Profile focus on the teaching and learning of national/official languages, foreign languages, and regional or minority languages.

4. Council of Europe policies and standards for language(s) of school education

The Language Policy Division has recently launched a project on examining the feasibility of producing a common European framework or handbook of reference for languages of school education. The project is in its initial stage. Several expert meetings have already been held, defining the scope of the project and suggesting the working methods. An international conference and an intergovernmental forum were organised to examine the views on the topic as presented by a broader audience in Europe. The events produced conclusions on the relationship between terms, concepts, notions, understandings and practices of the educational and academic fields in question.

As mentioned above, the work of the Council of Europe on languages promotes plurilingualism, linguistic diversity, mutual understanding, democratic citizenship, and social cohesion. Within this project, special attention is drawn to the final element, the importance of social inclusion. It is expected that a possible framework for language(s) of school education may be useful in dealing with the problems experienced by those learners who fail to attain appropriate competence in the language(s) of school instruction. Without this competence, learners do not acquire the qualities and qualifications which are crucial for unrestricted participation in social life. Those most at risk are ‘disadvantaged learners’, i.e. those who are disadvantaged by not acquiring in their home and primary socialisation the same language/variety as the languages used for learning at school – such as learners of migrant background with low educational attainment or others of low socio-economic status whatever their origins.

The project aims to support social inclusion and equal opportunities for successful learning by (i) analysing and defining approaches to curricula for languages of education, with a view to elaborating a prototype instrument for planning teaching and assessment, taking into account the language skills needed for study across curriculum areas; (ii) examining current practices for the acquisition of the language of instruction by disadvantaged native speakers and migrant children in order to support their efficient integration into the education system; (iii) exploring possible links with learning, teaching and assessment in foreign (and other) languages in order to promote a coherent approach to language education.

After having discussed the differences between concepts such as Mother Tongue, Standard Language, Key Language, Language of Instruction, First Language, Home Language, Heritage Language, National Language, State Language, etc., it has been decided to use the term Languages of School Education (**LE**) to include the following areas of investigation:

1. Language as subject (**LS**) – encompassing the languages taught in schools as subjects (e.g., French taught in French schools, German in Germany, etc.);
2. Language across the curriculum (**LAC**) – involving the languages used as media of teaching and learning of other subjects in schools (and of lifelong learning);
3. The language curriculum (**LC**) – denoting the languages as part of a holistic language curriculum which embraces all the languages a learner meets (e.g. a learner in Germany might meet German as the official language taught as a subject (**LS**) and used for instruction in other subjects (**LAC**), Turkish as his/her language of the home taught as a subject (**LS**) and used for instruction in some subjects (**LAC**), English and/or Spanish taught as a foreign language (**FL**) and, possibly, used for instruction in some subjects as well (**LAC**)); a holistic concept of the language curriculum treats these as related aspects of the learner's plurilingual capacity which has consequences for curriculum planning.

The main purpose for a European reference document for LE is the facilitation of discussion of and communication about languages in education in general and the specific areas of LS and LAC. The emphasis in such a document on international communication will be complemented by a similar attention to internal communication among teachers/professionals of LS, teachers/professionals of modern foreign languages, and all other teachers/professionals, since the latter are inevitably using language for instruction.

5. Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) and Content and Language Integrated Teaching and Learning (CLIL)

The concept of language(s) used across the curriculum emphasising the role of language in subject-matter learning should become an integral part of a framework of reference for languages of school education in Europe. In consequence, special attention will be drawn to the experiences with bilingual education and CLIL where a second (or third) system of communication is being developed by the learner through the use of a language other than his/her 'mother' tongue for subject-matter instruction, thinking and learning respectively. The importance of CLIL lies in the fact that it is based on an integrative, supportive approach stressing the cognitively guiding role language plays in all mental activities such as discourse comprehension and production, as well as when negotiating about concepts, context and meaning. The CLIL approach is extending the range of goals for language learning beyond the development of what Cummins (1978, 1979) called Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), as may often be the case in the domain of FL – towards the development of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), a tool for successful lifelong education. This academic language competence plays an important role extending the basis which has been laid through mother tongue acquisition and education (or second language acquisition and education for immigrant children) and enabling learners to participate in different discourse communities and their conventions, professional or social in nature. Indeed, it appears that integrating language development and content mediation is what good quality education generally is all about – the interest in CLIL is to grow.

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Further information and reference on Council of Europe's work on languages is available at:

www.coe.int/lang and www.coe.int/portfolio

Part 1: Realizing Integration

Questions for debate in English medium lecturing in Spain*

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Abstract

The increasing importance of Erasmus exchanges, the facilities to start international double-degrees and also the possibilities of teacher exchanges have raised the interest of universities for tuition in a foreign language, especially English. At Universitat Jaume I, a group of lecturers suggested to the authorities to start teaching their classes in English in order to attract Erasmus students from other universities. As a consequence, an institutional Project was proposed and approved with the aim of facilitating the introduction of the foreign language as the language of tuition in some undergraduate courses. The Project started in 2003 with a duration of two years, and 28 teachers from 7 different departments joined it immediately. Thanks to this project, during the academic year 2005-2006, 22 subjects in 9 different courses started introducing English progressively as the language of tuition. The aim of this paper is to explain how the Project was conceived, and how it has been developed, using a methodology of participation, debate and collaboration between content and language teachers.

1. Introduction

The idea of integrating content and language was first applied in the U.S. in order to assist immigrant students coming from countries where English was not the official language (Crandall, 1987; Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Snow and Brinton, 1997, Mohan, 1986). However, this idea was further developed in Europe as a means of promoting foreign language learning and, therefore, to face the challenge proposed by the European Union of a continent without frontiers, where all citizens, workers or students, can live, work and study wherever they choose. One of the first initiatives to stimulate mobility among European students was the Erasmus programme, which aimed at encouraging university students to spend short-term study periods at a university in another European country. After the success of the Erasmus programme, the new challenge is the creation of the European Higher Education Area where all university studies will be equivalent by the year 2010. Additionally, and also with the aim of increasing mobility, new policies are being applied in order to foster international double-degrees, that is, students are required to spend an established period of

* Fortanet, I. (2008). Questions for debate in English medium lecturing in Spain. In: Wilkinson, R. & Zegers, V.

study in two universities in different countries and, in exchange they obtain a degree from both of them.

Multilingualism is a requirement for all these new policies. However, the present situation is not homogeneous in all European countries. Whereas in some countries the percentage of people who can hold a conversation in a language other than their mother tongue is almost 100% (Luxemburg or Holland), in others they hardly reach 30% (U.K. or Hungary) (Commission of the European Communities, 2005: 3-4). English is the language most widely spoken in Europe (47% of the European citizens can speak it), that is one of the reasons why it is adopted as a 'lingua franca' in many situations, including education. Even though the European Union is making a great effort to prevent the overuse of this language, which could mean "unforeseen consequences for the vitality of [national or regional] languages" (Commission of the European Communities, 2005: 6), the reality shows that today it is the most feasible language to use in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in most European countries. Additional to the reasons already provided, English is the language of most international journals in almost all disciplines, as well as international conferences attended by university teachers. Even though the European Commission in their meeting in Barcelona in March 2002 called for at least two European languages to be taught apart from the official languages of each country (European Council, 2002), the reality is still far from the ideal situation, where CLIL in Higher Education could be applied in several European languages.

Some Northern European countries have already carried out experiences in CLIL for a number of years (Hellekjaer, 2003; Lehtonen, Lönnfors, & Virkkunen-Fullenwider, 2003; Lehtikoinen, 2004; Prokisch, 2004). However, the rest of the European countries are still at the beginning stages regarding the integration of the foreign language and content subjects in teaching and learning (Argondizzo, 2006; Dafouz & Sancho 2006). Learning about other universities' experiences could be a good point of departure to start new CLIL programmes in many institutions.

2. Spanish Higher Education and Universitat Jaume I

Spain is among the countries where few people can speak a foreign language. There may be several reasons for this: Spanish is one of the languages most widely spoken in the world, the preference given in recent years to the teaching and learning of regional languages in bilingual areas, or the late internationalisation of economy and politics, among others.

English has been taught in secondary education for quite a long time, but only in the last years has it been incorporated in primary school curricula. Moreover, the teaching of foreign languages in Spain has been traditionally either grammar-based or, at most, focused on written skills.

As a consequence, very few students manage to hold a basic conversation in English when they reach the university.

The importance given to languages in higher education depends on the university. Whereas it is a compulsory discipline in all majors in some universities such as Universitat Jaume I, in others it is only optional for the students of some courses.

Content and language integrated learning is not completely new for the students in some bilingual areas in Spain, since for a number of years it has been used in primary and secondary education for the teaching and learning of the regional language. In the case of the Valencian Community this language is “valenciano”, a variety of Catalan. However, in Spain CLIL has hardly been used in public primary and secondary school for the teaching and learning of foreign languages. There are only some pilot experiences (Navés & Muñoz, 1999; Pérez-Vidal & Campanale Grilloni, 2005). Moreover, in the latest years, more and more universities in Spain are trying to implement CLIL at a tertiary level, as illustrated by a number of presentations during the latest ICLHE conferences. Universitat Jaume I seems to be highly suitable for the implementation of CLIL, since from its inception in 1991, at least one foreign language, English, is an obligatory discipline in all majors. Additionally, all students are offered the possibility of learning another foreign language, French or German, as an optional or free choice subject.

3. The project

In 2003, at a meeting of coordinators of the Erasmus exchange programmes, some of the participants complained about the difficulties they had in attracting students from their partner universities, whereas many Spanish students were willing to do an exchange. As is well known, when there is a lack of reciprocity, agreements tend to come to an end. When asked about the main problem students had about coming to Spain, the coordinators in partner universities stated that most students could manage to follow a class in English, but very few had enough knowledge of Spanish to do so. The first proposal for an initiative “to start teaching in English” came from the representatives of the Department of Computer Science, since they were experiencing an imbalance in the student exchange programmes. Additionally, much of the bibliography and new knowledge sources in this discipline are in English and using this as the language of tuition was only a step forward not representing a great effort for students or for faculty.

This idea was discussed by the governing board of the university and three Vice-rectorates became involved:

- a. Vice-rectorate for International Relations, since it could improve not only student mobility, but also teacher mobility;

- b. Vice-rectorate for Tuition Organisation and Students, since it would affect tuition, departments, and students; and
- c. Vice-rectorate for European Harmonisation, since all changes in teaching methodology should be framed in the wider scheme of the European Higher Education Area.

It started as a two-year pilot project, entitled “Proyecto de Incorporación de la Docencia en Inglés”, and a senior lecturer from the Department of English Studies was appointed as its coordinator. Other Spanish universities had already started initiatives of this type by offering students subjects taught in English, but to the best of our knowledge, no similar project supported by the governing board could be found in any Spanish university.

The main goals of the project were:

- Facilitating a higher internationalisation of the studies and the collaboration of prestigious professors from non-Spanish speaking universities.
- Getting more exchange students coming from European universities, by means of the ERASMUS programme.
- Higher integration of the learning of English and the learning of other subjects in the curriculum.
- Higher student motivation for the learning of English and, as a consequence, better command of this language.
- Better knowledge of the teaching methodologies used in other universities.
- An added value to the students’ record of what they have done at the university, which will be explained in their Diploma Supplement. This should help them in getting a good job in prestigious companies and institutions.

At the beginning all interested teachers and students were called to general meetings to discuss the steps to follow, since it was something new and needed to respond to the expectations and necessities of the university community. A good number of faculty showed their interest in the project, both teachers of English in several courses and teachers of other subjects. However, students did not seem to be so enthusiastic about it, at least in its organisation. Before starting the project, several aspects were discussed until a solid ground was established for its implementation, to a great extent the reason for its success. The aim of this paper is to share with the audience what the main questions for debate were, and how they were solved.

4. Type of subjects to teach in English

In the present university system in Spain, which is in a process of change, there are three main types of subjects for the students: compulsory, optional for all the students in the same major, and free choice for all students in the university or in a common area. The problems observed by the teachers

were that students of optional or free choice subjects did not choose them if they perceived an additional difficulty when the subject was taught in English.

On the other hand, the difficulty with compulsory subjects is that usually there are several groups of students in these subjects, and the teachers of those groups who are generally not taught in English might not be cooperative if they thought that teaching in English could affect in some way the content assimilation by students. Also, if the same concepts were explained in all groups, the students in a group where the teaching was in English might perceive an additional difficulty and attempt to move to one of the other groups. Even in the case of a single group, difficulties might arise if students were not given any option to take the subject in another language.

Although the teachers who raised this problem tried to seek a solution from their colleagues or from the university authorities, it soon became clear that there was not one solution for all subjects. The conclusion was that only teachers who had the experience of teaching a subject, who knew their audience, the content and the circumstances of that subject, could decide on whether English could be incorporated and how to incorporate it. However, it was agreed that they should look for the support of their departments and degree committees.

Along the project, most teachers showed their preference to teach in English in the subjects in the last years before graduation, since students were more mature and could perceive the benefits of integrating content and language. Furthermore, there was a tendency to choose some optional subjects since the number of students was more reduced, there was usually only one group, and the teacher had more freedom in the design of the syllabus and the methodology to be used. The risk was that students would not choose the subject, so they had to make them as attractive as possible.

In other universities in Spain complete majors have been offered in English. However, in the long term this has proven to be unsustainable in public universities, since it is difficult to find teachers prone and prepared to teach in English in all subjects, and because there are not always enough students who want to be taught in English to complete a separate group.

5. Motivation of students and teachers

The motivation of students for the project had been already surveyed in two degree courses: Licenciatura en Administración y Dirección de Empresas (the Spanish equivalent to a Bachelor Degree in Business Administration), and Ingeniería en Informática (Computer Science Engineering). In both majors students appeared to be willing to have some subjects taught in English though they expressed fear of additional difficulty, especially when asked if they would be ready to answer exams in English.

As for the motivation of teachers, the situation in the Spanish university system is not optimal at the moment, especially for junior teachers. The tenure track has been changed in the latest

years, increasing the difficulties dramatically, also a new change has been announced for the next months. The types of contract have also changed, together with the requirements to obtain one. Additionally, the curricula of degree courses will undergo an important reduction in the number of tuition hours in the near future, due to changes derived from the European harmonisation process, which comes at the same time as the effects of the fall in the birth rate in Spain during the 80s. This will inevitably affect the future of many teachers with temporary contracts.

On the other hand, efforts regarding improvement and innovation in teaching are not recognised as a merit by the National Agency of Evaluation in Spain, which only considers research publications to award “sexenios” (a raise in salary and an important merit for tenured teachers).

With this situation it is not easy to motivate teachers to devote their time to making changes to their methodologies of teaching, neither to innovate as they risk not being able to teach the subject the next year, after having prepared it, or even losing their job if an internal re-structuring is carried out.

In order to stimulate innovation in teaching and the motivation of teachers to join projects like this, the governing board of Universitat Jaume I issued a document for the recognition of the quality of teaching. After measuring some parameters, including the results of the questionnaires given to students for teaching assessment, participation of teachers in training programmes, etc., departments are awarded a number of extra credits they can assign to teachers who take part in these projects, that is, these teachers teach fewer hours or fewer subjects when they participate in such projects. In this way, more credits can be assigned to subjects that require additional preparation, such as those that could be taught in English.

Regarding the motivation of students, after some discussion, it was agreed that a small public university like ours, which has been decreasing its number of students in the latest years, cannot afford to lose one single student, who may be afraid of extra-difficulty because some subjects in his or her major are taught in English. Among the students the project should only be perceived as an effort to increase teaching quality. In order to achieve this objective, English should be introduced step by step and only in those subjects where it would be easily justifiable because updated materials are in English, because experts invited to give a lecture do not speak Spanish, or because students will have to speak English in relation to the content of the subject in an academic or professional situation in the near future.

In general, it was agreed that first and second year subjects might not be the most suitable in most degrees, since students are adapting themselves to the university system, there are many students per course, and it is difficult to follow-up and get feedback from them, and because it is in these years that they take the subjects of specific English for Academic Purposes, which trains them for the success of future subjects in English.

6. Courses of EAP for teachers

Another topic of debate was teacher training. Many teachers claimed the need for specific courses of academic English as teacher training. Most of them stated they could read and understand research articles in their field in English, as well as listen to presentations at conferences. Some teachers had already successfully submitted their articles to international journals, and made their own presentations. However, very few felt confident enough to teach in English.

Two specific courses were designed for the teachers in the project during the academic year 2004-2005:

- An extensive course of 50 hours with sessions of two hours each Friday afternoon during the whole academic year, taught by EAP teachers from the Department of English Studies, for 15 teachers of several disciplines.
- An intensive course of 40 hours, especially tailored for a group of 8 teachers, by the Institute for Applied Language Studies in Edinburgh, and taught during one week at Universitat Jaume I and one week at the University of Edinburgh.

Both courses were well accepted by the teachers in the project, and there has been a request for continuation after the end of the project.

7. Complementary ways to support the project

In the discussion sessions, additional ways to support the project were explored. The Universitat Jaume I has a unit for the support of innovative tuition (*Unitat de Suport Educatiu*), which makes calls for projects in order to encourage innovation in tuition. The selected projects receive some funding and are internally recognised for promotion. It was agreed that all projects related to the introduction of English as the language of tuition would be given preference in the selection process and it would be stated so in the call for proposals.

Secondly, the Erasmus exchange programme for outgoing teaching staff (T.S) was underused at the Universitat Jaume I and all teachers participating in the project were encouraged to take part in exchanges in order to learn how their subjects are taught in other countries, to gain self-confidence when teaching in English if they could do so in the partner university, and to invite foreign teachers who could teach in English to their subject classes.

Thirdly, financial support was offered to invite teachers from other countries who could share their experience with us. All these opportunities were used by some of the teachers in the project.

7. Individual project per subject

During the discussion sessions it was observed that teachers needed a common tool to start planning the introduction of English in their subject. In the latest years the Universitat Jaume I has been making a great effort to introduce a system of strategic management based on objectives, actions, and indicators of success. As this was the way we were encouraged to work, it was decided that the individual projects should also follow this scheme. Seventeen teachers completed the individual project, which was conceived as a living document that should constantly be used to think about the subject in relation to the project, and should also be constantly updated and modified as the actions in the project were carried out.

In the first part of the document, teachers were required to provide their personal data, and all the information about the subject they had selected to introduce teaching in English¹. This was followed by a general description of the project, and the period of implementation, and the total number of hours they estimated that were needed in order to implement their project.

EXAMPLE

Name: XXXXXXXXXXXXX							
Category: Profesor Titular de Universidad							
Code Num.	SUBJECT	TYPE	YEAR	N. OF GROUPS	SEMESTER	N. OF CREDITS	
						THEORY	PRACTICE
355	Computer Integrated Manufacturing	Op	5	1	2	3	3
PROJECT DESCRIPTION: Partial introduction of teaching in English in the subject							
PERIOD: 2004/ 2005 and 2005/2006							
ESTIMATED NUMBER OF HOURS DEVOTED TO THE PROJECT: 135							

Some project descriptions were much longer and more accurate, though none of the teachers introduced English as a sole language of teaching from the beginning, and only some produced objectives and actions for more than one academic year. In these few cases, objectives were provided for each year followed by the number of additional hours the teachers estimated they would need to carry out the actions to achieve the objective and the additional credits they claimed for the preparation of the subject. Each objective included several actions, with their period of implementation, estimation of hours devoted to it by the teacher² and indicators to measure the effectiveness of the action.

EXAMPLE*

OBJECTIVE 1: Introduction of materials in English			
ACTIONS	PERIODS	ESTIMATION OF ADDITIONAL HOURS	INDICATORS
1. To collect materials for the subject in English.	Before the beginning of the academic year.	10 h.	During the academic year 2004-2005 students will be provided with materials in English: both summaries of the contents of classes and referential materials about the European Union.
2. To make materials available for students at the subject web page.	The web page will be updated with the new material during the academic year	10 h.	

* The subject of this example is European Economy.

There was a great variety of objectives and actions, although most teachers coincided in some, such as:

- Collecting materials in English;
- Inviting a foreign teacher to give a class in English;
- Writing reports or essays in English by students;
- Voluntary oral presentations in class in English.

Some teachers included in their project their own training in academic English, as well as visits to other universities to get new ideas to be used in their classes.

There is just one teacher who has already updated his project with consecutive objectives that will lead in 5 year's time to a subject completely taught in English. The subject, Marketing through Internet, is optional for the students in the 3rd year of the Licenciatura en Publicidad y Relaciones Públicas (Bachelor degree in Advertising and Public Relations). It consists of 4.5 credits (current equivalence: 45 hours of teaching), and is taught during the second semester. The objectives are the following:

- 2005-2006: Complementary readings in English (Indicator: summaries)
- 2006-2007: Marketing plan in English (Indicator: oral presentations)
- 2007-2008: Cases in English (Indicator: oral presentations)
- 2008-2009: Introduction of a text book in English (Indicators: conceptual mapping, comprehension tests)
- 2009-2010: Lectures in English (Indicators: Notes by students, comprehension tests, periodical interviews with students).

8. Conclusion

The pilot project finished at the end of 2005 with very positive results for all parties. During the academic year 2005-2006, twenty-two subjects in nine different majors have been offered to students as partially taught in English. Very few of these subjects have not reached their objectives and no negative reaction has been observed from the students so far, on the contrary, some students have expressed their satisfaction and have appreciated their teachers' efforts.

The future of the project is uncertain due to the present unstable situation of the university. However, when asked, most of the participating teachers stated their wish to continue implementing their projects, and even to start new ones in other subjects.

As for the future re-structuring of university studies in Spain, some teachers think teaching in English will become compulsory in international Masters in some disciplines and that a preparation of students to be able to enter these Master courses will be needed in undergraduate studies.

Though the pilot project ended in December 2005, the results will only be visible after several years, provided it receives the support of the governing bodies and there is more recognition of the teachers' efforts. We hope this project will continue in the future, since from our point of view, the internationalisation of European higher education nowadays can only be in English. An additional effort will be necessary in order to accomplish effectively the directives of the European Commission about multilingualism, and that will only happen at a later date.

Notes

¹ All projects were written in the teacher's mother tongue. I am presenting here my translation of their words. Names have been deleted to protect the teacher's identity.

² The total number of hours devoted by the teacher for each action should be the same as they had stated previously in the project. In general, it was observed there was an overestimation of additional hours for preparation, but it was a good exercise for teachers to adjust their estimations.

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Preparing lecturers for English-medium instruction*

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Abstract

To support NNS lecturers who teach in English, Evelyn van de Veen¹ and Renate Klaassen developed a set of courses at Delft University of Technology in which pedagogical, intercultural and language skills needed for effective teaching in English are trained in an integrated manner (Klaassen, 2003). These courses have been running since 2002, and so far about 200 lecturers have followed them. This paper will report on an evaluation of the courses.

In this paper we will focus on the evaluation of two of our courses: a module which introduces participants to the problems of teaching and learning in a foreign language, and the linguistic and pedagogical approaches one may take to deal with them and a module in which English language skills and teaching strategies for the second-language classroom are developed in an integrated manner. By means of a survey we investigated how they have experienced our courses and assessed the relevance of the courses. Additionally, we conducted a follow up survey in which lecturers were asked which elements of the courses lecturers use the most in practice, which changes they made after following the courses, and what effects those changes have on their teaching behaviour.

1. Introduction

Under the influence of the Bologna process more and more master curricula in the Netherlands are offered in English. The intention is to attract more foreign students, as the Dutch demographic trend shows an increasing decline in the growth of new Dutch students (Wilkinson, 2003). Moreover as the Netherlands wants to be one of the internationally recognised top-players in education, the focus of universities becomes more and more outward bound and international (OCW, 2002). As English is nowadays the language in which much of worlds' communicative exchange is realised, English-medium instruction is the obvious choice to participation in the international community. Yet, as English is generally not the first language of the communicating partners, English will have to be re-

* Klaassen, R. (2008). Preparing lecturers for English-medium instruction. In: Wilkinson, R. & Zegers, V. (eds.). *Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education*. Maastricht: Maastricht University, pp32-42.

contextualised i.e. placed into a cultural and environmental context, for new speakers, new environments, different pasts and different futures of learners with a non-native background. (Pakir, 1999). Indeed the very fact of different backgrounds of the communicating partners may be a cause for problems with respect to meaningful and effective communication.

To accommodate these trends Delft University of Technology has decided to offer all Master programmes in English. Specifically, this means that content-matter is transposed to English and offered and presented in English. No language integrated support for students is available in the programme, although matters are slowly but steadily changing. In general extra-curricular support classes for English language proficiency are available at the Institute of Communication & Technology of the TU Delft.

The majority of the Lecturers and the majority of the students are non-native speakers of English. Staff development first became an issue in 2002, during which the first supportive module for English-medium staff was offered in a course up till today. Presently, the TU code of conduct on provision of English-medium instruction is adapted (internal document, TU Delft 2006). The main issues in the code of conduct all relate to language planning and are as follows:

- Entry requirements are set for new personnel with respect to English language proficiency
- Lecturing in English is to become a part of the annual assessment cycle by the personnel department and will be an integrated part of staff development programmes and requirements
- The entire scientific staff will be tested in the year 2007 on their English language proficiency
- Courses to either improve the language proficiency to a C1 (Common European Frame of Reference) CEF- level or to improve pedagogical skills for English-medium instruction will become mandatory
- All the written material will be submitted to official translators at the VU-translation centre in Amsterdam.

2. "Principles of Teaching in English"

When we started, however, with the staff development Module "Principles of Teaching in English", opinions and policy were quite different from the present situation. The general thought was that "English language proficiency is the only skill that needs refreshment" (Klaassen, 2003) Other skills are irrelevant with respect to English medium instruction as our lecturers already know (1) how to teach and design courses, (2) how to write "good" instructional material in a second language, (3) how to deal with international students and introduce an international dimension in their teaching. At Delft University of Technology a number of studies (Jochems, 1998; Vinke, 1995; Snippe & Klaassen, 1997) into the problems of English-medium instruction have, however, demonstrated the

necessity of the development of pedagogical skills of lecturers who provide English-medium instruction. Slowly the idea begins to settle that more is needed to become an internationally oriented University. The pedagogical quality, intercultural communication and English language proficiency should be sufficient to compete with other internationally oriented institutes.

3. Context

In this paper I will discuss the evaluation of the programme that we've run up till today to support lecturers on the three essential aspects of English-medium instruction (EMI); 1 pedagogical quality for EMI, 2. intercultural communication and 3. English Language proficiency) in the course module "Principles of Teaching in English". The main idea behind the course module is that it is impossible to improve the language proficiency of lecturers over a short period of time. Macrea (1997) for example indicates, that to improve an IELTS score of English proficiency with one point and intensive English language course of 4 to 6 months is needed. Lecturing skills are influenced by the switch in language and may suffer in quality as a result of a language shift. Lecturers become less redundant, less expressive and less clear in English (Vinke, 1995). Consequently, one may improve the language skills in general such that the lecturer will eventually achieve the level of language proficiency which allows him to function at a level of a native speaker or one may tackle the specific lecturing behaviour which suffers from a switch in language.

The students' listening task is influenced by the task requirements, the input students have to deal with and their own abilities at the moment of listening (Richards, 1983, Ferris, 1998). Consequently, the required level of students' listening comprehension abilities depends among other on the input by the lecturer and the encountered tasks (Richards, 1983). Subject matter instructors should not only develop more effective classroom behaviour to address the deficiencies in their teaching skills but also to address the needs of these non-native speaking students. To make content-matter accessible to non-native students requires effective lecturing behaviour skills, some basic knowledge of the second language acquisition process and intercultural communication issues to accommodate the wide variety of backgrounds in international groups (Ferris, 1998).

Therefore, lecturers should be offered tools with which they may on the one hand auto-didactically improve their individual language skills and on the other hand may improve students understanding of the content materials they will have to deal with. All the courses in the module "Principles of Teaching in English" are team-taught to generate the desired outcome. The other main idea is that meaning and understanding of content have to be negotiated during the construction of knowledge in different pedagogical situations. The outcome will differ in each context as different tasks require different skills and lecturers as well as students bring different background variables

with them to the pedagogical situation (see figure 1.) (Klaassen, 2001). This integrated course design is based on key findings (Klaassen, 2001) of research into the effects of English-medium instruction on student perceptions, which indicate that teaching skills play a crucial role in students' evaluation of the effectiveness of English-medium instruction. Factors which amongst others turned out to be especially important included explaining new terminology, explaining things in various ways, using clear examples, as well as liveliness, effective gestures, and maintaining eye contact. This led to the conclusion that these elements of effective lecturing should play an important role in any training course for lecturers teaching in English.

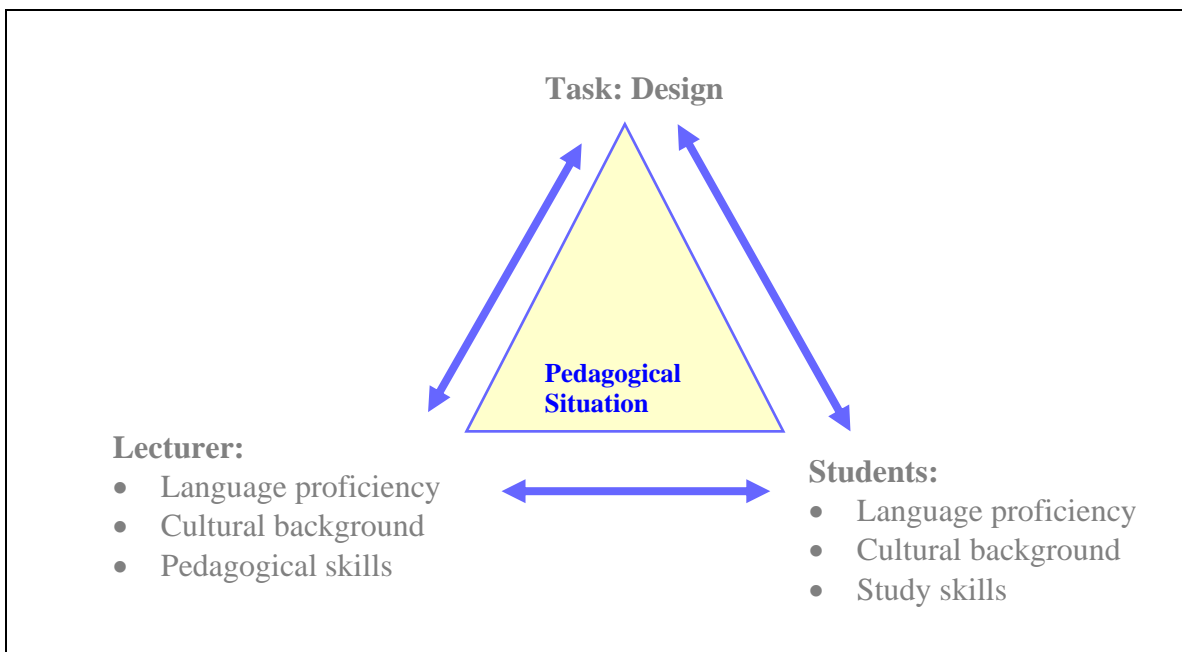


Figure 1. EMI environment

The course module consists of the following sub-courses:

- Workshop: **“Working with Groups of International students”** which is an introductory course in Language, Pedagogical and Intercultural Communication skills followed by 77 participants in 10 workshops. After this course lecturers may choose to continue in one of the following Master classes:
- Master class: **“Spoken English for Lecturers”** focused on Oral Language & Pedagogical skills and followed by 81 participants in 9 Master class ‘Spoken English for Lecturers’.
- Master class: **“Writing Course Materials”** focused on written Language & Pedagogical skills followed by 11 participants in one Master class ‘Writing Course Materials in English’

- Master class: **"Intercultural Communication"** focused on Intercultural Communication & Pedagogical skills, no classes have run yet. 7 persons are interested for this course

Participants were all scientific staff or university content lecturers involved in teaching technical content ranging from architecture, to aerospace construction and design, to chemical substances. As can be derived from the above the major interest of lecturers is to improve their oral proficiency. The pedagogical skills are not emphasised in the course description, such that participants are willing to come on a voluntary basis. Reasons that were indeed given in a needs analysis to participate in the initial workshop and follow up Master classes are "To improve my English", "To be able to give a clear presentation in English", "To gain confidence and be at ease while speaking English in front of a group", "To become aware of strong and weak points when teaching English" and occasionally "To gain insight into working with international students". Some lecturers were initially offended by the fact that the pedagogical skills did receive equal attention. Most, however, were pleased to have additional feedback on their lecturing skills and the impact on students understanding.

4. Evaluation

The courses were evaluated as follows:

- Workshop: Minute paper/ final evaluation during the course (2002 – 2006)
- Master classes: Mid-course evaluation and final evaluation during and at the end of each course (2002 -2006)
- Overall Follow up evaluation in May 2006

Four levels of effect interpretation can be distinguished in evaluations of a "training":

- *Evaluation on the level of reactions*: indicates how the participants experienced the training and how they feel after having finished the training.
- *Evaluation of the learned*: indicates the degree in which the participants have learned something.
- *Evaluation of the application of the learned*: the extent in which the participants adapt their lecturing behaviour as a result of the training
- *Evaluation of the results*: Do the training results have a positive impact on the job performance (Kirkpatrick, 1987)

The minute paper specifically focused on the level of reactions of the participants. The minute papers were used as a reflective instrument at the end of each course day in which the

lecturers sort of related what they learned and what would be most applicable in their daily practice. This evaluation was done by means of three open questions 1.) Which moments did you experience as eye opener or “aha-erlebniss”?, 2) How do you feel about the different topics dealt with in today’s workshop?, 3.) Which expectations do you have with respect to the application of lecturing behaviour discussed today?

The midcourse- final evaluation questionnaire at the end of each training focused on the evaluation of reactions and the learned. These evaluations dealt with meeting the objectives of the course, advice for improvement of the course, missing elements, most applicable in practice etc. (Klaassen, 2001). This evaluation consisted of closed and open questions. The closed questions were focused on whether topics were appropriately dealt with and the course objectives were met, scored on a five point Likert scale. Open questions dealt with the issues mentioned above.

Although effective lecturing behaviour is practiced numerous times in the training, whether the learned will be applied on the job could only be derived from the intentions formulated during the training by the participants. Therefore we decided to conduct a follow up evaluation in which we would specifically focus on the evaluation of the application of the learned and an evaluation of the results. This follow up evaluation dealt with what they actually remembered from the course and whether they actually adapted their lecturing behaviour as a result of the course. This questionnaire consisted of closed and open questions. The closed part dealing with contextual information, which course did you follow, did you provide English medium instruction after having followed the course etc. And open questions with respect to applicability of the learned.

5. Workshop Evaluation results

From the minute papers it could be derived what the participants found most valuable during the course. Unfortunately not all of the participants filled in the form (N=32) due to time constraints. The most salient aspects were that teachers felt they became students. They experienced how demanding it is to follow a workshop where the language of instruction was not their mother tongue. Furthermore, they noticed the attention span was much shorter when another language was spoken and an alternative set of working methods was actually necessary to keep them on task. The content issues the trainers dealt with and which they found most valuable to learn and felt were most applicable were signposting, summary words, intonation patterns, phrases and sentence structures in classroom language and how to stimulate interaction. They were mentioned time and again. Other issues less often mentioned were intercultural communication, role playing, effect of English-medium instruction on students, etc. In the final evaluation we asked them whether the learning objectives were met. The learning objectives for the workshop “Working with Groups of International Students” were and are:

1. Ability to recognize student difficulties in EMI (English-medium Instruction).
2. Ability to recognize strength and weaknesses in one's lecturing skills when providing EMI
3. Ability to perform lecturing behaviour that support's students understanding
4. Ability to recognize problems associated with teaching int. groups of students

Figure 2 presents an overview of the results. The scores on a five-point Likert scale range from objectives not met at all to met very satisfactory, zero being neutral (--/-/0/+ /++). For the sake of clarity the minus categories are clustered and the plus categories are clustered.

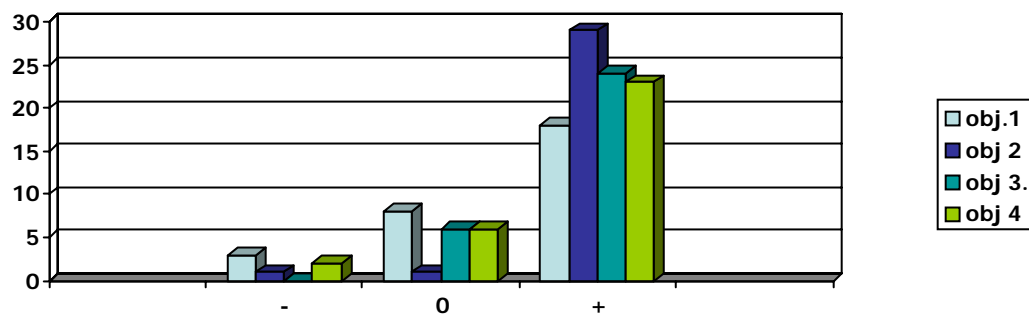


Figure 2. Workshop evaluation of the four objectives.

What is immediately noticed are the positive results. In particular objective two is met very satisfactorily, even as objectives 3 and 4. Noticeable is that objective one is met to a much lesser extent than the other objectives. Apparently, it is difficult for non-language specialists to recognise the impact language has on teaching and on students' information processing of content matter (Räsänen & Klaassen, 2006). Informing the lecturers about the difficulties students have and role playing real life situations to create experience is a step in the right direction, but obviously not enough to grasp what is going on in the students' situation.

6. Master class "Spoken English for Lecturers" evaluation results

In the Master class we held a mid-course evaluation and a final evaluation. The questionnaire was divided in separate parts. Which topics were most valuable and applicable in practice and whether the learning objectives were met at the end of the course. The topics/objectives were also on the mid-course evaluation, such that we as trainers would get an impression of what was reached up till that point. Here I will only report on the final evaluation. For clarity sake not all the questioned topics will be related.

Table 1. Evaluation of “Spoken English for Lecturers”.

N = 46	MEAN (SD)
•Feedback from Lecturer	4.4 (.57)
•Using Signposts	4.4 (.64)
•Asking & Dealing with Questions	4.4 (.89)
•Feedback provided by other participants	3.7 (.64)
•Overall Relevance of topics discussed	4.3 (.64)
•Overall Applicability of topics discussed	4.2 (.61)

The first 3 issues in table 1 “feedback from lecturer”, “learning to use signposts” and “asking & dealing with questions” were evaluated most positively on a five-point Likert scale from 1 poor to 5 very satisfactorily. “Feedback provided by other participants” was felt to be least applicable and satisfactory of all the issues dealt with. Apparently trusting other peoples’ judgment even if they may be right is very difficult. It also gives an indication of how serious student evaluations are taken.

Student evaluations are usually judged on the basis of their relevance with respect to our own behaviour. Does the evaluation confirm our views of ourselves with respect to our language proficiency and pedagogic skill? If yes we tend to be happy with the feedback and we will try to meet the demands. If no, we usually tend to say that the language proficiency skills of the students or their study skills are not very adequate, so “how are the students able to judge our teaching behaviour anyway”. Naturally, there is a truth factor in both these rationalisations. However, the feedback may indicate the difficulties students have with our teaching behaviour or language proficiency in an English-medium instruction setting without their necessarily being right or wrong. The same goes for this lecturer course. The feedback of other participants gives an indication of what kind of problems our students have with our own teaching behaviour and English language proficiency. We as trainers of the lecturers may use this participant feedback to reinforce feedback which we wanted to give anyway or we moderate feedback we feel is not adequate. Contrary to the belief of the participants, the feedback of other participants is an important component of the success of the course.

Finally, the overall relevance and applicability of the course were questioned and evaluated at a sufficient level. For most lecturers it was hard to imagine how they would integrate the newly acquired materials into their lectures.

The course Spoken English for Lecturers was valuable to a varying extent. The added value depends, as with any language and pedagogical course, on the effort and input of the participants. Therefore, we saw participants progress very rapidly both in language proficiency and pedagogical skills and others merely attend and benefit very little. The many classroom exercises did help to

automate classroom language (i.e. to have classroom language at the tip of your hands) and to be able to deal with questions in a more appropriate way.

Table 2. Learning Objectives: “Spoken English for Lecturers”

	Mean (sd)
1: Use a variety of expressions for classroom mgt appropriately	4.1 (.89)
2: Express oneself more fluently	3.8 (.87)
3: Use existing language sources to extend your range of English	4.0 (.15)
4: Deal with questions in a variety of ways	4.1 (.93)

7. Follow Up Evaluation

In 2006 we questioned participants that previously followed a course by means of a follow up evaluation. In this evaluation participants were asked what they found most useful a couple of years after having followed a course and most applicable in practice. All 160 participants were questioned. This number included many participants who followed more than one course, i.e. probably there were some 110 potential respondents in total. The response rate (N14), however, was disappointingly low. Nonetheless it gave us a glimpse of what is happening in the classroom.

The main gains of the course in the long run were that most participants gained **more self confidence** when teaching in English for 8 respondents out of 12. Only two lecturers were evaluated more positively by their students. Other participants were neutral (6) or even disagreed (1).

We also asked them what they took from the course and used most in practice. The following issues were forwarded: They were better able to deal with foreign students and capable of adapting to students needs. They used more relevant classroom language, integrated signposts and made use of summary words. They were better able to ask and deal with questions and capable of explaining new concepts.

After the course some of the lecturers adapted their presentations (n = 8), their level of interaction with the students (n=5), their course materials (n=2), their working methods (n = 3) and created supportive materials for students (n=2). Some of them did not adapt anything for no specific reason (n = 2) and some did not provide any English classes at all (n=2).

8. Conclusions

From the evaluations we deduced that “awareness and understanding of the complexity of the pedagogical situation is essential for improving English-medium instruction”. To raise this awareness a content and language integrated teacher training approach is useful and relevant. Although one of the objectives of the courses is to improve language skills, language improvement is not necessarily

realised, as language improvement requires long term dedication. English language proficiency is therewith an appetiser for the improvement of lecturing behaviour relevant for an English-medium instructional setting. Although the response rate for the follow up evaluation was very low and we have to carefully interpret the results, we had the feeling that in the long run the lecturing behaviour is better adapted to the needs of the student.

As a first step to awareness and improvement of English-medium instruction an integrated approach to language proficiency and pedagogical skill supportive of student understanding is very relevant. In the long run, however, the success of implementing English-medium instruction and becoming an internationally oriented University depends on an extended policy for quality improvement with respect to language proficiency as well as pedagogical skills. English medium instruction will only get the attention it needs when the social pressure of students and the ongoing globalisation requires a University to pay attention to the quality of the primary process (education) and therewith the qualifications of its personnel.

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Code switching in content learning*

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Abstract

We report here on a case study involving content learning through French as an L2 / L3. Clyne (1997) and Dewaele (1998) indicate that L3 learners often rely on a second language as a “default supplier” for L3 production. This means that L3 learners use their knowledge of L2 to help them communicate in L3, which can hinder L3 development. Jessner (1999) states that the development of competence in two or more languages can result in higher levels of metalinguistic awareness facilitating language acquisition. In order to improve learning we adopted Gee’s “social semiotic space” model around a simulation activity. The simulation consisted of problem solving in French around a created context reflecting the students’ composite school placement experiences. Results show that the activity helped discourse competence as more ways were used for meaning-making. The simulation was especially helpful for higher levels of language development for the more advanced students.

1. Introduction

The focus of this article is on the effects of code-switching (the linguistic term usually used when learners of a second language (L2) include elements from their mother tongue in their speech) on content learning in L2 or integrated content learning (ICL). Switching can occur between a second language (L2) and the first language (L1), or others (L3, LXs). With global mobility, instructional models have to be examined in new ways for optimal learning in ICL courses. Students may use another language (L3) they have in common with other learners for problem solving. The research proposed here provides insight into these issues in an ICL course in teacher preparation for French L2, around the following two questions: 1) Is content learning more effective or less effective when using the mother tongue or an additional language and how? 2) Is there a language learning gain or loss when using languages other than the L2?

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Hammerly (1985) strongly criticized French (L2) ICL programs in Canada for not providing an adequate basis for verification of meanings and for meaning-making. The problem is due to a uniform use of the target language and body language without proper evaluation and feedback on what is learned. Much of the research on the topic of content learning in an L2 is in the area of reading research (Havras, 1996; Kern, 1989; Kern, 1994; and Upton, 1997). Conclusions drawn on L1 use by L2 readers include the following: a) Learners tend to translate words or phrase meanings; b) They have a hard time with word or phrase meaning or with syntactic structure; c) They need comprehension checks at clause, sentence or paragraph level; d) They also experience difficulties at these levels; e) They tend to predict or anticipate text structure or content; f) They monitor text characteristics and their own behavior while reading.

Researchers have shown that adult language learners use mental translation from L2 to L1 as a common cognitive strategy. Kern (1994: 442) defines mental translation as the “mental processing of L2 words, phrases, or sentences in L1 forms while reading L2 texts”. Cook believes that all learners access the L1 while processing in L2, having the L2 “constantly available” (1992: 571). The researcher also thinks that teachers cannot do anything about the constant presence of the L1 in learners’ minds. Vygotsky (1986) relates mental translation to “inner speech”, internalized language that is for oneself. Looking at Vygotsky’s work on sociocultural theory, researchers such as Anton & DiCamilla (1999), De Guerrero (1999) and Roebuck (1998) have shown the cognitive influence of one’s L1 on L2 acquisition. This seems to be more observable at the early stages of L2 learning. Cohen (1995) found that there is little research on the effectiveness of thinking in the target language as compared to thinking in the L1. Upton (1998) as well as Cohen claim that many L2 readers use the L1 for more than just mental translation. Readers use their L1 to process what is read in the target language, for meaning-making and to reflect.

One of the dangers of ICL is to favor risk taking in language learning for the development of language without giving opportunities to verify that students get the intended meanings or a chance to allow for a connection of new knowledge into previously acquired knowledge through adequate questioning. So an approach had to be developed around learning needs, group task completion and problem solving. This way the different levels of knowledge could be gained through cross-fertilization while more emphasis is placed on word and sentence meanings throughout the dialogues. Gee’s (2005) hypothetical model of computer “affinity spaces” during gaming activities is an open model that might offer possibilities in bringing together very diverse learners in ICL courses around problem solving. The question is whether this model can be adapted to learning situations in Higher Education. Affinity spaces are often created to motivate, organize and resource participants in an endeavor (Gee, 2005; Gee, 2000-2001; Gee, Hull and Lankshear, 1996; Rifkin, 2000). Gee’s (2005) example would translate into a classroom where people freely mix languages or switch partially to

their mother tongue or an L3. Gee describes the features of what he calls “affinity spaces” and their characteristics could enhance content learning through code-switching.

1. The first characteristic is common endeavor, i.e. no reflection on personal identity. The common endeavor being content learning, language use and inclusion of diverse cultural experiences to advance learning should further common interests.
2. The same space should be able to accommodate people at all levels. No matter their skill level in L2, all participants are included. According to the model, learners with more expertise could be segregated from those with less, yet there are spaces where no segregation occurs. We could foresee groupings around the same L1 or families of L1 and groups of more and less fluent L2 learners to enhance content learning with the instructor providing one-on-one instruction when needed.
3. New signs and relationships are generated in affinity spaces. In the content-learning class new meaning-making would be taking place through different languages, thus also increasing the capability for content verification by individuals accessing their mother tongue and with learners of different cultural backgrounds coming together where interesting questions and new connections might be generated.
4. The internal grammar, in this case the content to be learnt, is modified by external input (i.e. interactions between participants or groups) and in turn transformed.
5. Intensive and extensive knowledge is gained. Specialized knowledge in one or more areas can be shared through personal experiences using L1 and less specialized knowledge is widely shared too. All people involved would have something to offer even if transposed from another language they are familiar with.
6. Access to individual knowledge and distribution to networked knowledge in context enables all participants to do more and know more than they know individually.
7. Dispersed knowledge is also accessible to everyone through information gleaned on content from other sources, all the richer if the sources are more extensive plurilingual multicultural networks.
8. Tacit knowledge is also acknowledged. Although tacit knowledge can be passed on without using the L2 but for example through showing, there are opportunities for articulation of this knowledge into words.
9. Participation can vary and be either central or on the periphery. In addition it can change across time and tasks. Code switching allows for that to happen too.
10. You can be good at a number of different things, not just involving L2 use, such as organizing groups for meaning-making, sharing cultural experiences and participating in a

number of different ways. Code-switching would be a normal part of these various activities and could allow a gain of time to be used more efficiently for something else.

11. In an affinity space according to Gee's (2005) model, leaders are designers, resourcers and enablers; there are no rigid, unchanging and impregnable hierarchies. The instructor is a participant.

2. Method

When teaching in students' L2, instructors have to be very attentive so that learning is taking place. Regardless of the approach that is used, it is ineffective if there is little or no learner intake. Intake has to be measured by learner output but it is also key to have learners reflect on their use of learning strategies and difficulties. With this in mind, we chose a case study approach. Code switching was assumed to naturally occur in an affinity space model for L2 content teaching; however, the question of logistics had to be addressed. In a regular classroom you are not in a computer gaming space but you could create a "social semiotic space" (Gee, 2005) by simulation. In an attempt at creating such a welcoming social space we turned to simulation as it allows to hypothetically replicate characteristics of affinity spaces. Simulation activities in second language learning are intended to place students as closely as possible to real life contexts but working with the language to be learned, referring to their past experiences and creating activities that require them to bring these experiences to the classroom. Thus opportunities are provided to closely relate meanings and language use in the language of instruction to their other language in which their experiences are situated. We devised a simulation activity called "my school community" to develop strategies for integration of content and professional vocabulary.

The participants in this teacher training program had just returned to the university. They were in a course preparing them to become teachers of French, reflective practitioners who are also competent in using the L2 professionally. Students from similar school placements were encouraged to join together in a group, which in fact they did spontaneously. They were to identify if problems encountered were common problems and also find solutions through hearing others sharing their experiences. The simulation activity was devised for awareness raising and integration of new professional language in L2 in their ICL course and we observed the students during simulation activities over a term for code-switching. The idea was to build on both the larger picture of their school environment and also have them look at and discuss problematic details of their experiences. During each simulation students spoke spontaneously and freely and only wrote key items on lists as spring boards for later sharing with their peers from other groups. Notes were taken when code-switching occurred. Each group was asked to draw a composite school building, and/or school yard corresponding to salient aspects of their experiences. To more closely parallel the gaming situation of

Gee's model and in an awareness raising exercise they were also allowed to add as much as necessary relevant detail about the inside of the school building, like in a see-through plan, and at the same time correct the problems identified in their school setting. Each week a new problem to solve during simulation activity was presented. These included: appropriateness of physical school context for students' well-being, L2 dialogue in and outside the classroom, teachers' attitudes toward students, language teaching lessons, importance of homework and students' attitudes towards it, extra-curricular activities to enhance a positive attitude, the school cafeteria, teachers' availability to students who need one-on-one teaching, teacher candidate and associate teacher relationship. In turn, conclusions drawn after each discussion topic were listed and relevant information shared by all. This activity was carried out in the French second language ICL course. Through this simulation activity, concerns and ideas were discussed without blame or criticism on one specific site, anonymity was respected and collaborative problem solving took place.

3. Results

Let's examine results for question 1): Is content learning more effective or less effective when using the mother tongue or an additional language and how? There is no doubt that students developed ease of articulation in L2 and spoke in the L2 as much as possible. From our observations throughout the simulation there was a constant back and forth between the L1 and L2 although the results of the discussions were successfully presented to peers in the L2 only. There was also evidence of integration of content. This suggests that depending on the learner, various levels of distance were taken from the texts previously read for class as well as from the practical teaching context and both were meshed together. This is indicative of learning. There was also evidence of a move to metacognitive strategies to carry out the simulation activity. This was also an observable gain.

Question 2): Is there language learning gain or loss when using languages other than the L2? During observations we saw evidence of language gain in terms of specific vocabulary items that were also used properly in context. In addition, the students carried out their discussions mostly in the language of instruction, French, transposing from the English speaking contexts of the schools. Appropriate vocabulary items around teaching and learning as well as school contexts were learnt in French through student collaboration and also the instructor contribution. The research clearly shows that increased proficiency in the language, determined improved L2 reading comprehension (Upton), and we observed the same result for L2 production. With the development of L2 proficiency, as the cognitive reliance on strategies decreases (for instance, the need to refer to the L1 to think about the text or the practical experience), the supportive use of the L1 becomes higher (Upton). So, given that this process helps with decoding, and the fact that the L1 was used quietly,

we saw no problem letting learners use their L1. It also appeared that the higher level of ability of the more fluent students helped others gain more confidence if not much more fluency. Nevertheless it did not appear that overall the students' grammatical competence increased. They did use some lexical phrases stemming from professional practice but it appeared to be more along formulaic expressions. Therefore if their output included new content vocabulary, used appropriately in context, we did not note a significant improvement in grammatical competence. However, professional discourse competence improved.

4. Discussion

A great deal of research has been conducted on learning strategies and we can ask whether using code-switching as a strategy is effective in content learning. However, Bialystok (1990) claims that "the teaching of strategies" does not lead to "students using them". Nonetheless, activities and tasks aiming at skill getting coupled with skill using have been found to translate into enhanced performance. In addition, using strategies is thought to require careful planning and monitoring because otherwise the lack of feedback might dampen their effective use.

During the simulation students learned to differentiate between what was important in the lesson and what was not. This is very valuable in teaching L2 students to develop a weighting scheme around evaluating the relevance of contents in lessons. The small group format allowed learners who shared an L1 to get together with others who may be more fluent and also allowed them to assess lesson contents in light of the cultural and knowledge base they already possess in their L1. In addition, the opportunity to revert to the L1 allowed them to refine their thinking around new items taught and place them adequately within their knowledge base. Both the simulation activity enabled those learners, not yet familiar with these culturally driven self-evaluation processes to observe them, engage in them in either language and in turn it is hoped that they will adopt them. The question of learning gain or loss is difficult to measure for the long term. In addition, it was not possible to approach each class throughout the academic year in a simulation mode. A longitudinal study should shed light on the long-term impact of allowing code switching to enhance learning during activities like the ones carried out in our study.

Use of time was a problem. Students enjoyed sharing experiences and took a lot of time, as would probably be the case in an "affinity space" in computer gaming. They felt that they gained a lot of relevant knowledge. Nevertheless, we redirected the activity for a more effective use of course time and transposed the concept to a ten-minute group discussion towards the end of each class trying to make the group space resemble "a micro affinity space" with all the freedom cited in Gee's model and this included a lot of code-switching. During the time-limited "affinity group sharing" students discussed how they managed with the ICL lesson, exchanging ideas about what worked well

for them, letting those who experienced difficulties voice their concerns and get peer support. Learners who might have had similar styles helped each other without the instructor present and they also called upon the instructor for further clarification and help. Peers were questioned when content was not understood. The instructor was only asked one question for clarification, the students only seemed to dialogue with the instructor for reassurance in what appeared to be a self-evaluation mode. For the duration of the implementation of the ten-minute running of an affinity group, learners usually started to talk about what they gleaned from the lesson, all adding their contribution when they felt like it.

Many studies of L2 reading point to improved comprehension when L1 is used for thinking, i.e. identifying ideas, or a combination of L1 and the target language. We do not know if results for reading apply in our study of code-switching. Bernhard and Kamil (1995) and other researchers believe that no conclusions can be drawn regarding the reading skill without looking at what L1 reading performance and L2 knowledge can contribute to a task. So they really think that the L2 reading process has to do with individual differences. So for reading comprehension, according to much research, content learning is more effective when using the L1 in the case of some persons. This was not observed in this study. The students gathered around the most fluent peers and got the information from them, which concurs with Upton and Lee-Thompson's (2001) research. It appears that the reliance on thought in the L1 declines when learners become more proficient. Some of our students were very fluent in French and did not appear to use L1 except when they were asked to elucidate something for a peer during group work.

During the simulation activities, all students participated in the reporting phase, speaking in the L2. However, during the preparation phase, for problem solving the most fluent students were doing most of the talk in the L2 whereas the others spoke less and sometimes only spoke using their L1. During that time one feels that time is not used efficiently for the development of L2. The simulation activity, although highly valuable to individual learners in the groups, as it resembles a unique learning situation close to an affinity space, could be carried out as an "out-of-class" assignment; as an "in-class" activity, it needs to be very tightly structured with given time limits. In Upton and Lee-Thomson's research, beginners relied heavily on L1 and intermediate learners of the target language still expressed themselves mostly in the L1 during think-aloud protocols for help in target language reading comprehension, which supports our findings. Most of the students in this specialist's professional course were not intermediate learners, rather advanced learners. So we can conclude that L1 helps the less advanced learners. The researchers also uncovered that advanced L2 learners only used L1 48% of the time while for post L2 students its use went down to 11%. At more advanced levels the L1 appeared more in metacognitive strategy use. One can assume that when learners gradually move to higher order strategy use in L2, they can do so because there has been

some language gain. However, for all advanced learners to use L1 to predict or anticipate text structure and content (Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001) could mean that supportive appeal is made when levels of difficulty increase or perhaps when learners experience anxiety. These results concur with Chan's (1996) findings. L1 or any supporting language was used by students in our study when task difficulty could not be handled in the target language. There could be a language learning loss which obviously also entails a loss in content learning if the supportive use of L1 were not permitted when learners experience difficulties. If switching to L1 or L3 is indeed an individual characteristic, it is important for the instructor to be flexible and give students a chance to use the strategies that work best for them. It would seem that a discussion of strategy use could be very beneficial to students who are not good strategy users. Such a component could be built into the ten-minute affinity group exchanges. So far we have concluded that effective use of L1 in L2 classes is conditional upon a reasonable level of mastery of the L2; L1 is used to fill gaps and to think about difficulties. If the understanding of the L2 text is not sufficient enough to find the gaps or for the awareness of difficulties there is not much one can do. In turn, the L3 could be useful for scaffolding on an intra-psychological plane, using whatever means available to push the L2 competence ahead. Upton and Lee-Thompson's (2001) study showed that where cultural contexts differ greatly, strategies for identification and learning of text content were widely used, whereas evaluation strategies were not often used. The researchers wondered whether that was due to student reading habit tied to a cultural background in which reacting to or evaluating the reading through what one understood, had not been practiced. Therefore there would be a gap to be filled which could lead to even greater uncertainties and demotivation if lack of comprehension continually took place. To resolve such situations students native to the culture, or advanced students, could act as cultural mediators and help L2 learners with strategies to enhance their content learning by explicating strategies in the students' native tongue. More research is required in this area. We recommend one-on-one teaching or small group discussion of the difficulties of a socio-cultural and affective nature that students encounter. By exchanging ideas on strategies they used successfully they could help the others sort out these types of difficulties. If group talk is not effective, a trained mediator could bring about improvement for what Verity (2000) calls the ability to "scaffold oneself". The results of studies by Clyne (1997) and Dewaele (1998) indicate that L3 learners often rely on a second language as a "default supplier" for L3 production. This means that L3 learners use their knowledge of L2 to help them communicate in L3. Jessner (1999) states that the development of competence in two or even more languages can result in higher levels of metalinguistic awareness facilitating the acquisition of language. The researchers also report that the speech of multilinguals is characterized by systematic intrusions of one of their languages into another, resulting in utterances where structural features ascribable to more than one language are present. This was also observed in our study. However, we

found great improvements in discourse competence and perhaps such instances are indications of the development of discursive aspects in interlanguage and in such instances instructor's intervention could be most beneficial. Jessner (1999) shows that one of the processes that multilinguals use is to look for equivalent expressions or cognates in the languages that they have been in contact with in order to help them understand another language.

5. Conclusion

It appears that code-mixing is helpful for improved second language development if this language is required for specialized purposes and high levels of proficiency have to be reached. However, it provides better abilities for communication purposes including more ways for meaning-making. Code-switching is effective at different stages of content learning depending on context and students, as it will allow content learning to become integrated to other knowledge in socio-culturally and affectively acceptable ways. The simulation developed for our learners enhanced output in the second language and helped develop their discourse competence.

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Integrating language and content: Two models and their effects on the learners' academic self-concept*

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Abstract

There are two types of foreign language integration to content in Higher Education. The first model is the full integration of language. In those universities all the courses are conducted through the foreign language. The second model has partial integration of the foreign language, which means some courses are taught through the foreign language while some others are conducted in the native language of the students. This difference in approaches may have an effect on learners' self-concept in content and the language that they are supposed to know and use effectively for academic purposes. This paper is based on a research study conducted to investigate how these two models change academic self-concepts in content and language. Do students in full integration of language differ from the ones in partial integration? The study results will shed some light on the discussion of language and content integration.

1. Introduction

The role of language in academic settings is of vital interest to those concerned with tertiary education since English has become the world's major language for the communication of research findings. The dominance of English as the 'lingua franca' in educational settings (Cook, 2003; Seidlhofer, 2004) is becoming widespread. Some researchers have become critical and called for resistance to this development (Pennycook, 1994). At the same time, many others have explored the most effective instructional models which combine language and content in Higher Education. This paper examines two alternative instructional models applied at tertiary level education in Turkey, which have been at the root of educational conflicts over the years: (1) Foreign language (English) medium instructional model – where all the courses are taught in English (learning content of disciplines through English only), (2) Native and foreign language medium model (Turkish and

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English medium) – where both English medium courses and Turkish-medium courses are offered and students are required to take English medium courses to some extent decided by the institution.

In both models integration of language and content is observed. As long as there is integration, total or partial, dual goals of education become pervasive. In a general sense, the present study aims to examine the two ways of achieving those dual goals of the CLIL (content and language integrated learning) approach (Marsh, 2005). When designing new instructional models which combine content and language (other than the native one) we need to answer the critical question: “To what extent can we have the integration total or partial?” The research hopefully provides insights into the answer of this question by comparing the two models representing total and partial integration in achieving content knowledge and language competence. To this end, a study was conducted to investigate the effect of the two instructional models on students’ self-concepts in the Turkish tertiary educational setting.

The informal evidence observed in the Turkish tertiary education context suggests that Turkish students and their families prefer English medium universities since they think that such an instructional model will result in better language competence as well as a higher level of content knowledge and finally better job opportunities in future. Such a demand has caused an increase in the number of English medium universities founded in recent years. When the students who scored the highest at university entrance examination are accepted by English medium universities financed by the state, they generally feel satisfied with the educational opportunities they had since some others pay money for a similar private university. The universities which are not English medium are competing with them by providing English medium courses to some extent varying from 30% to 40% of the total credits that the students have to complete. Students seem more confident in using the English language in English medium universities but sometimes complain about memorization and not being able to participate in oral discussions in classes in English. On the other hand, students from English-Turkish medium universities feel less confident in using the language but feel more confident in the content knowledge since they have more opportunities to discuss the issues related to their field of study orally or in written forms freely in their own language.

Self-Concept

Self-concept is one of the most popular affective variables in education. The ERIC database includes over 6,000 entries under the “self-concept” descriptor. In self-concept research literature, there is discussion on the ambiguity of the term (Strein, 1993). Complications emerge from the interchangeable use of terms such as self-esteem, self-worth, self-identity, self-acceptance, self-regard, and self-evaluation. Marsh, Byrne and Shavelson (1988) defined self-concept to be a person’s self-perceptions formed through experience with and interpretations of one’s environment. Hence, self-

concept can be considered broadly to include the perception of oneself, including one's attitudes, knowledge, and feelings regarding abilities.

Most researchers reject a strictly unidimensional construct of self-concept because it does not adequately explain behavior in a wide variety of settings. In contrast to the traditional model of global self-concept, multifaceted models stress self-evaluations of specific competencies or attributes, e.g., academic self-concept, physical self-concept, and so on. (Marsh & Yeung, 1997). The clearest example of measures based on the multifaceted view is Marsh's (1992) set of scales ('Self-Description Questionnaire I, II, or III') covering ages seven to young adult. Researchers often distinguish between academic self-concept such as reading and mathematics and self-concept in non-academic areas such as physical abilities and peer relations (Marsh, 2003). The construct 'academic self-concept' refers to an individual's perception of his or her level of competence or ability within the academic realm.

Hence, the purpose of the present investigation is to extend the domain specificity of self-concept research by pursuing comparisons of self-concept in two different instructional models. In other words, it aims to investigate whether total or partial integration of content and language make any difference in students' self perception of the content knowledge in their field of study and the competence in language and academic courses.

2. Method

The central independent variable in this study is the language of instruction. Instructional models are classified into two types in terms of the language used as the medium of instruction:

1. Foreign language medium (English medium) – representing total integration of content and language and
2. Native and foreign language medium (Turkish and English medium) – representing partial integration of content and language.

Subjects of the research include 586 students from six universities in Istanbul. Three of the universities are English Medium and three of them are Turkish and English Medium. Out of the three in each category, one of them is a state university which is the best known and the most prestigious, and the other two are private universities which have about the same level of popularity in Turkish society. In both categories, the socio-economic level of the students at the private universities is higher than at state universities. In terms of students' academic success level in general, English medium universities accept students with higher scores in the central university entrance examination. Therefore, the levels of respondents' socio-economic status and academic success vary.

In order to control the departmental differences, the study does not include students from departments where verbal language use is not much required, such as Mathematics and Physics, since

the students at those universities may be successful and feel confident in their courses even though they are not using the foreign language properly. In the same way, the departments where English is the main content knowledge, such as English Literature and Translation Studies, are not included since students in these subjects may be more proficient language users than the students from other departments. The departments are chosen from the ones where both the written and spoken use of English language is required for the successful completion of courses such as the department of psychology, international relations, economics and management. First- and second-year students are not included in the study since they may not have clear perceptions of their competences in language and content yet and still busy forming their academic self-concepts. Therefore, only third- and fourth-year students are chosen on the assumption that their self-concepts are more stable than first- and second-year students.

The questionnaires were administered at the end of 2005-2006 academic year when they take their final exam. The questionnaire was translated into Turkish and administered in their native language.

ASDQ II (Academic Self Description Questionnaire, Marsh 1992) was adapted to fit different domains of university education. The original six items were adapted under the subscales of language, content, English-medium Courses and Turkish-medium Courses. *“Compared to others my age, I am good at ...”; “I get good marks in ... classes”; “Work in ... classes is easy for me”; “I am hopeless when it comes to ...”; “I learn things quickly in ...”; “I have always done well in ...”* The original six-point Likert Scale of 1 ‘false’ to 6 ‘true’ was used. For students from English-medium universities three different measures are used: Language specific self-concept (SC-lang), content specific self-concept (SC-Content), and self-concept in English medium Courses. For students from Turkish & English-medium universities self-concept in Turkish-medium Courses (SC-Turkish medium Courses) was added as the fourth measure.

Coefficient alpha estimates for reliability of 18 items in the questionnaire are .94 for 315 respondents from English-medium universities and .91 for reliability of 24 items in the questionnaire for 202 respondents from English and Turkish-medium universities.

Theoretical Models and Research Questions:

Although the instructional models have dual goals to achieve both content and language, the pedagogical primacy is given to content knowledge as outcome of the educational effort. In the instructional models, evaluation of the outcome is conducted directly on the content knowledge but indirectly through the language of instruction. Hence the study adopted two theoretical models in which content specific self-concept and self-concept in English language courses were considered as dependent variables rather than the language specific self-concept.

1. How well do the two measures of academic self-concept (SC- Language and SC- Content) predict SC- English-medium Courses for the students who are studying at English-medium universities?
(See Figure 1)

1.1. Which is the best predictor of self-concept in English-medium courses?

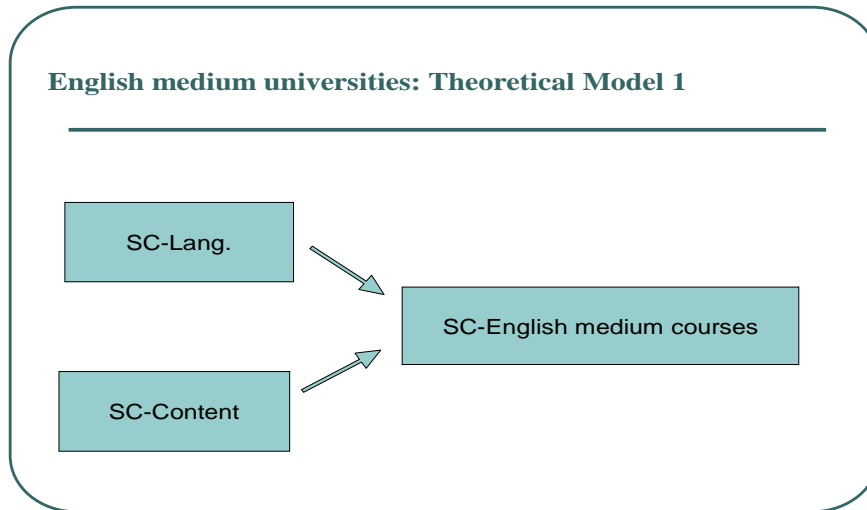


Figure 1 – English-medium Universities: Theoretical model 1

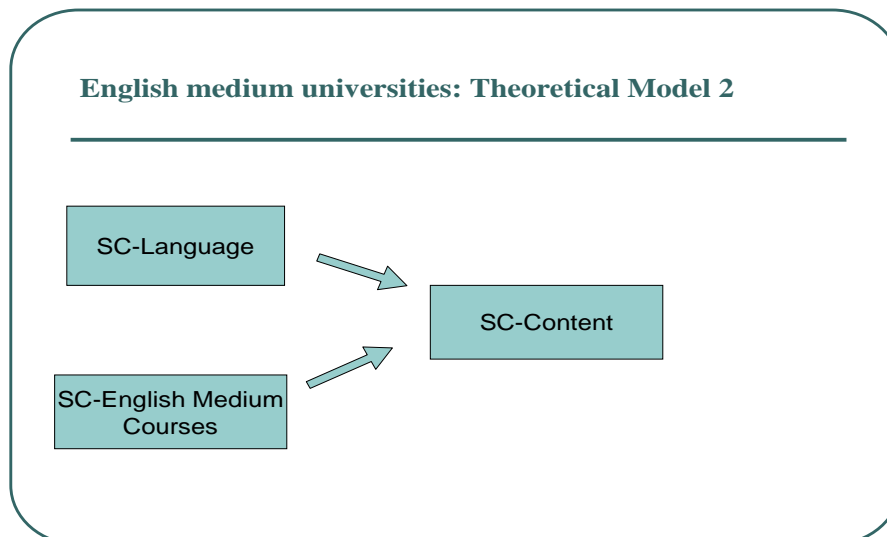


Figure 2 – English-medium Universities: Theoretical model 2

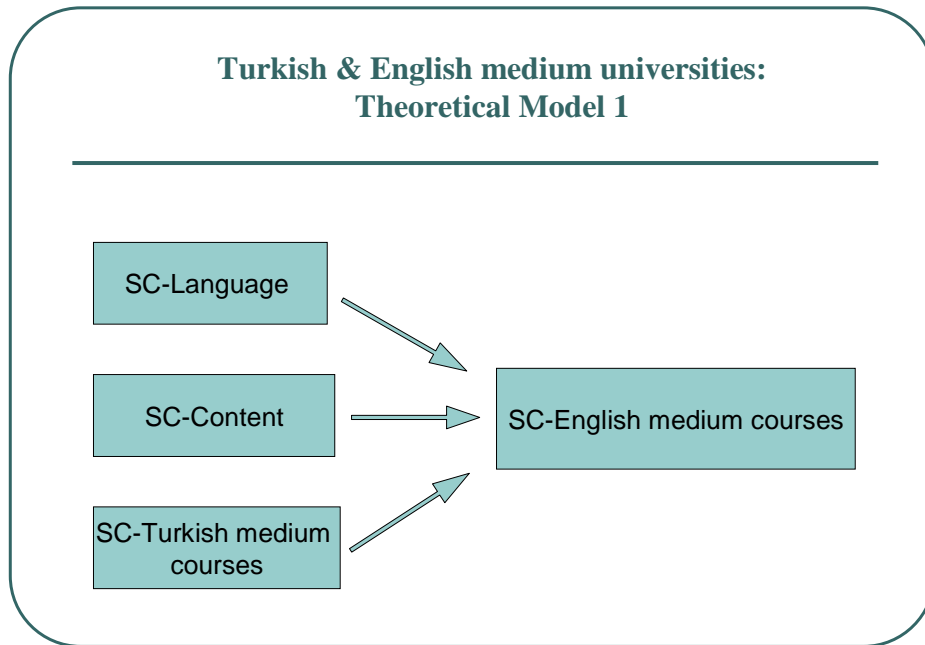


Figure 3 – Turkish & English-medium Universities: Theoretical model 1

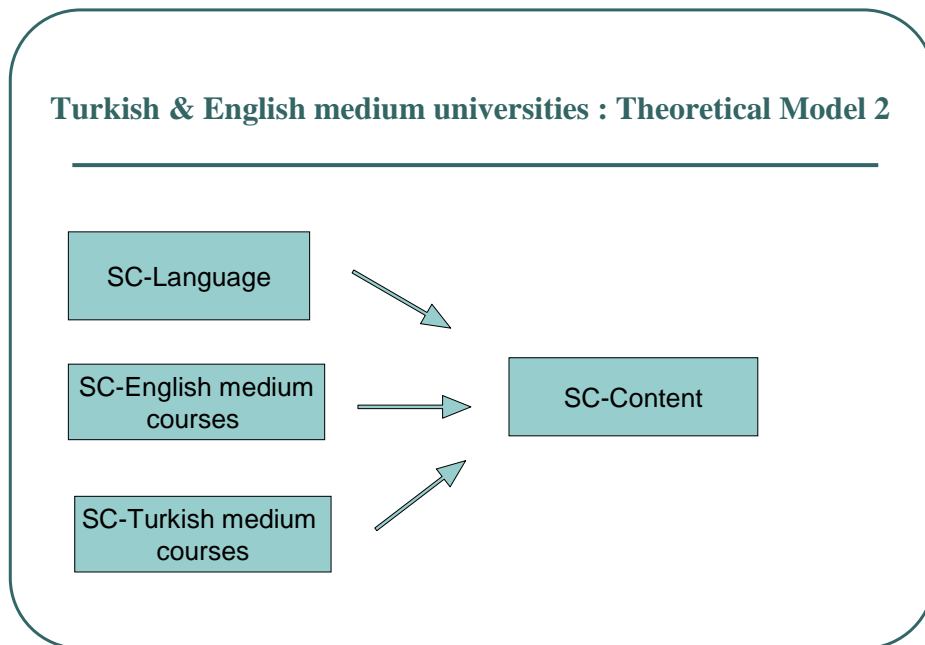


Figure 4 – Turkish & English-medium Universities: Theoretical model 2

2. How well do the two measures of academic self-concept (SC- Language and SC- English-medium Courses) predict SC- Content for the students who are studying at English-medium universities? (See Figure 2)
 - 2.1. Which is the best predictor of SC - Content?
3. How well do the three measures of academic self-concept (SC- Language and SC- Turkish-medium Courses) predict SC- English-medium Courses for students who are studying at Turkish & English-medium universities? (See Figure 3)
 - 3.1. Which is the best predictor of SC- English-medium Courses?
4. How well do the three measures of academic self-concept (SC- Language, SC- English-medium Courses and SC- Turkish-medium Courses) predict SC- Content for the students who are studying at Turkish & English-medium universities? (See Figure 4)
 - 4.1. Which is the best predictor of SC- Content?
5. Do students from two university types (English-medium and English & Turkish-medium) differ in terms of total academic self-concept?
 - 5.1. Do students differ in terms of SC- Content, SC- language and SC- English-medium Courses?

For data analyses Independent Samples t Test and a set of Standard Multiple Regression analyses were conducted.

3. Results

English-medium universities: As can be seen in Table 1, both SC-Language and SC-Content explain 64% of the variance in SC-English medium courses. SC-Language makes the strongest unique contribution (Beta= .55) to explaining the self-concept in English medium Courses when the variance explained by other variables in the model is controlled for. The Beta value for SC-Content is slightly less (.39) indicating that it made less of a significant contribution.

In our second theoretical model SC-Language and SC-English-medium courses explain 40 % of the variance in SC-Content. However, language has no significant contribution to SC- Content (Beta = -.03). Only English-Medium Courses contribute to SC-Content (Beta = .65). (See Table 1)

Turkish & English-medium universities: The first model which includes SC-Content, SC-Language and SC-Turkish-Medium Courses explains 56% of the variance in English-medium Courses. SC-Turkish-medium Courses is not significant (Beta = -.09). SC-Language (Beta= .69) has the strongest contribution compared to another significant contribution of SC-Content (Beta=.22) (see Table 1).

Table 1 – Regression coefficients (β) and Standard Errors (in parenthesis) for two university types in two Theoretical models for the scores of SC-Language, SC- Content, SC-English medium Courses, and SC-Turkish medium Courses

Dependent Variable		
(Theoretical model 1) SC-English-medium Courses		
Universities	English-medium Universities	English-Turkish-medium
SC-Lang	55* (037)	69* (045)
SC-Content	39* (043)	22* (076)
SC-Turkish-medium Courses	-	-09 (072)
R ²	64	56
(Theoretical model 2) SC- Content		
SC- Language	-03 (055)	-05 (056)
SC-English medium Courses	65* (055)	29* (059)
SC- Turkish-medium Courses	-	56* (051)
R ²	40	42
Note Decimal points omitted		
*p < .05		

In the last model 42% of the variance in SC-Content is explained by SC-language, SC-Turkish-medium Courses and SC-English-medium Courses. SC-English is not significantly contributing (Beta= -.05). Of the other two variables SC-Turkish-medium courses (Beta= .56) contributes the strongest compared to SC-English-medium Courses (Beta= .29). (See Table 1).

Table 2 - T test results for the two university Types

		Mean	SD	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
SC-Content	Type 1	25.5	5.5	1.09	.298	-1.33	551	.184
	Type 2	26.1	5.2					
SC-Lang	Type 1	26.7	6.4	8.31	.004	6.42	567	.000
	Type 2	23.0	7.2					
SC-English-medium Courses	Type 1	23.8	6.3	3.33	.069	6.58	556	.000
	Type 2	20.1	6.9					
SC-Total	Type 1	76.0	15.7	5.16	.023	-13.89	515	.000
	Type 2	96.8	18.0					

p < .05

(Type 1- English-medium Universities, Type 2- Turkish and English-medium Universities)

As can be seen in Table 2, the students who are studying at English-medium universities and the students who are studying at English and Turkish-medium universities do not significantly differ in SC- Content, but the two groups differ in SC- English-medium Courses and SC- Language. The two groups differ significantly in their total self-concept as well.

4. Discussion

For both university types to predict SC- English-medium Courses, SC- Language is the best predictor when students feel confident in English language, it contributes to self-concepts in English-medium courses and SC- Content is the secondary significant predictor. It means that knowing the language contributes more than knowing about content to feel competent in English-medium Courses.

For both university types to predict SC- Content, language is not a significant predictor. The students who feel confident in English language may not feel confident enough in their content knowledge.

While for the students of English-medium universities success or higher self-concept in English-medium courses contributes more to feeling competent in the content knowledge, for Turkish and English-medium university students, however, success in Turkish-medium courses promotes better self concept in the content of their own field of study. In conclusion, whether the language of instruction is predominantly a foreign language or not, skill in that language can be used

as a predictor for only foreign language-medium courses, but it does not contribute to how a student perceives himself in content knowledge of his own field of academic study.

When we consider that English-medium universities tended to be the most prestigious and academically the most selective schools in Turkey and admit students with the highest scores from the central university entrance exam, we expect higher self-concepts from the students of those. Surprisingly students from both university types are not significantly different from each other in SC-Language and SC- English-medium courses. Similarly, their total self-concept scores are not significantly different. The only difference is in their SC- Content and the students from Turkish-English universities have higher scores than the ones from English-medium universities and this can be explained perhaps by the positive contribution of Turkish-medium courses.

5. Conclusion

It is interesting that in English-medium universities students who are not confident in a foreign language can still feel confident in content because perhaps they find some other ways and strategies to learn the content in their own field. Learning from the books written in their native language may be one of these ways.

The study revealed that native language is an important tool for learning the content since native language-medium courses are a better predictor for content knowledge when the students are provided with both native and foreign language-medium courses.

In conclusion, the study within its limitations revealed that when content and language is integrated the two models – representing total integration (foreign language-medium universities) or partial integration (native & foreign language-medium universities) – do not have any effect on students' total academic self-concept considering the language, content, and English and/or Turkish-medium courses. In contrast to what is believed or expected, students from English-medium universities do not have higher self-concepts in English language and English-medium courses. The other finding of the study revealed that partial integration promotes better self-concepts in content. In the light of these findings, it can be summarized that total integration is not superior when the aim is to promote better self-concepts in the foreign language, and the partial integration is suggested when the aim is to promote better self-concepts in content.

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Towards a linguistically scaffolded curriculum. How can technology help?*

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Abstract

This paper reports on the rationale for and development of the CATS project¹. The main objective of this project (2006-2007) is to develop a model for curriculum redesign to optimize the development of the academic and professional literacy skills of Dutch students in Higher Education. The theoretical underpinnings for and the developmental process of a content and language integrated approach facilitated by Information and Communication Technology (ICT) will be presented.

We describe the design of language corpus-based software tools aimed at the promotion of student autonomy in academic reading and writing skills development and the use of a streaming video application to facilitate feedback procedures to workplace related specialised discourse. We will outline the design of the first experimental implementations in three Universities of Applied Sciences in The Netherlands. In the conclusion the implications of the interim evaluation results for the further development of the project are discussed.

1. Introduction

As reported in a number of publications (Crul & Wolff, 2003; Severiens, Wolff, and Rezai, 2006) many, especially first year, students in Dutch Higher Vocational Education appear not to have the adequate language proficiency levels in Dutch to complete their studies successfully and to function well as a professional. The adoption of competency-based pedagogical models in Dutch Higher Professional Education, the increased intake of students studying subject matter through a second language and the entry of new target groups such as Secondary Vocational Education students have been suggested as possible explanations for the increase in the numbers of students involved.

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The limited effectiveness of the current provision of support in Dutch language proficiency and study skills for students at Hogeschool Utrecht (HU) and the need to maintain educational quality levels motivated the University Board to address this problem. The Research Centre for Teaching in Multicultural Schools at the HU Faculty of Education was invited to come up with ideas for improvements. Inspired by local implementations of content-based teaching in primary and secondary schools (Hajer, 2005) and by similar models for Higher Education (Crandall & Kaufman, 2002) a new approach was defined. The Centre has developed plans that offer alternatives to the limitations of the current practice such as: hardly any transfer of skills due to the remedial model applied and no focus on domain-specific language possible because of mixed discipline student groups. To realise improvements interventions are proposed at four levels: university administration, faculty management, lecturers and students. Key pedagogic strategies in this integrated curriculum model are the raising of awareness of students' personal proficiency levels through diagnostic procedures, definition of linguistic demands of curriculum tasks, extension of subject teachers' repertoire of related didactical skills, empowerment of student autonomy and peer tutoring, and assessment. For more information see Gangaram Panday, Beijer, and Hajer (2007).

The heterogeneity of student cohorts in terms of language proficiency levels and the need for further individualisation due to the transformation to demand-driven curricula call for solutions with high levels of flexibility. To cope with these demands the possibilities of ICT-support for an integral approach to language development were researched. In Beijer, Hajer, and Koenraad (2004) technologies are identified that can support the main pedagogical features of the Content Based Approach (CBA)-based model presented in this study: provision of (individualised) domain-specific language input, facilities for active content processing and language production tasks involving functional focus on form and options for peer and tutor feedback.

On the basis of these ideas the CATS project was defined and received funding from the Digital University, a Dutch consortium of organisations for Higher Education.

To realise the project's goals (i.e. providing support for the objectives at student level in the wider language development project (Gangaram Panday et al., 2007: 4) run by the Centre) and related deliverables, specific work packages were defined. They respectively addressed the selection of ICT-applications and the development of additional technologies, design of curriculum experiments and the production of the related materials and methodologies. Evaluation of the project and the use of the tools in the various experimental courses was planned to lead to the realisation of the key deliverable of the project: an overview of the implications of pedagogical re-engineering of (a part of) the curriculum and practical guidelines to help other organisations with the implementation.

¹ An English version of this Dutch acronym would be: Computer Assistance for Language competences of Students

In section 2 we will first describe the software that is being used and developed in the project and discuss the related design principles and selection criteria. Then, in section 3, we briefly outline the settings in which the software and materials were piloted. In section 4 we summarise the evaluation research design, and we conclude with some reflections on the interim experiences and results in section 5.

2. Software Selection and Development

Processing of subject content can be a challenging task for students initially studying a new discipline as words used in academic (written) texts are often less frequent and less generic and therefore more difficult than those in (spoken) everyday language. Also, words in academic language often have a different or a more specific meaning than (the same) words in everyday language (Hajer & Meestringa, 1995; Schleppegrell, 2001). Students in tertiary education have to learn specific terminology and concepts to be able to complete their education. Students from ethnic minority groups and students from families with a low socio-economic status face a double problem when they enter Higher Education. Their vocabulary is often smaller than that of Dutch L1 students. Therefore, they might have more difficulty understanding the reading materials. In addition, they have to learn great numbers of new words through reading those texts.

A first concern in the CATS project was therefore to develop tools that could support the efficient provision of domain-specific content that meets demands such as authenticity and currency (Mishan, 2005) and facilitate ways to present the learner with enhanced input, e.g. by marking, modification and/or elaboration (Chapelle, 2003), and so would allow processing of subject content with a focus on meaning by providing glosses for obligatory vocabulary elements and flexible just-in-time lexical support for vocabulary acquisition in general.

To this end a number of software deliverables have been designed, developed and implemented in experimental sessions. The software applications are to a large extent inspired by work in the research project 'Models for Adaptive Second Language Acquisition' (MASLA) at Tilburg University. The project is targeted at the construction, implementation and empirical evaluation of models for computer-supported second language acquisition (SLA). In these models factors such as the stable and dynamic characteristics of the users, human-computer interaction and interface design and content and situations for SLA are integrated. Applications are developed that focus on vocabulary acquisition. Students work online on lessons that are personalised and dynamically generated. A lesson is generated from a sequence of meaningful, comprehensible, texts that are enriched with meaning focussed annotations and learner tasks (for more information see Werf, Hootsen, Vermeer, & Suijkerbuijk, 2005). These texts are selected from a large corpus of

reading materials based on the vocabulary used in those texts. This approach is both in theory and practice very usable in designing tools for integrating content processing and language development. In CBA the focus is on domain-specific meaningful input and annotations and tasks based on this input. Furthermore, the ‘open content’ and automated material analysis tools using a large general corpus of Dutch, the CELEX-corpus (http://www.ru.nl/celex/subsecs/section_source.html), as applied in MASLA help in building domain-specific implementations. This is described in further detail in the next sections.

Translating CBA principles to software requirements

The CBA characteristics and the general issues in supporting learners in a competence-based curriculum have resulted in some essential requirements for the software that was developed. Next to the requirement that solutions developed in this project are sufficiently generic to make transfer to other disciplines feasible, *scalability* and *learner autonomy* are leading principles in this project and have led to the following specifications:

1. there should be a strict separation between content and support functionality based on this content;
2. users (both teachers and students) can add domain-specific content, such as authentic texts;
3. for each form of learner support based on the content there must be an authoring function so that domain-specific implementations can be designed. Yet, this authoring functionality should be the same over domains;
4. domain-specific implementations should ‘grow’ both with the amount of content and teacher and student usage;
5. usable support should be reached with a minimum of time investment from both teachers and learners.

In order to meet these requirements a corpus-based approach was selected as a feasible solution. Corpus technology takes a collection of texts, a corpus, as its central unit of analysis and builds upon this corpus with analytical tools that provide information relevant for language pedagogy. Examples are frequency lists of the vocabulary used in the texts and common language patterns that can be identified in the texts. Student can ‘query’ a collection of texts and receive relevant examples of language use while carrying out pedagogic tasks such as the production of a professional document or the delivery of ‘evidence-based’ peer feedback.

Deliverables: corpus software, annotation tools and tests

In the CATS software, corpus building functionality is the starting point for each domain-specific implementation. First, users join an existing course, or create a new course. In a course, users can then upload and edit text materials, create annotation tasks for these texts, create tests, and sequence content blocks as lessons. The texts can be described using metadata field-value pairs, for example 'text type-reader', and 'text goal-writing'. Based on these metadata fields, users can create 'on-the-fly' subcorpora as a sub-selection of the complete corpus. An example would be a corpus of texts that contain only texts with a text type 'reader', or texts that have been written by students only. Using subcorpora, users can compare language use in different text types, for example point out differences in patterns used by teachers or students, or syllabi and books. In addition, the language used in a domain-specific corpus can be compared to everyday language. Users can analyse these (sub)corpora using corpus linguistic technology: word frequency lists, concordancing and collocation tools.

However, a corpus and corpus inspection software alone are not enough for autonomous and effective use of these tools in a normal curriculum (Braun, Kohn & Mukherjee, 2006). Additional form and meaning focussed input, tasks and assignments have to be added in order to make instruction more effective. For this purpose the CATS project delivered an 'open annotation framework for teachers and learners'. In this framework, (parts of) corpus texts can be annotated with extra linguistic and/or contextual information. Both teachers and students can create annotated versions of corpus texts. Annotations and annotated texts have different roles in student tasks. Firstly, these annotated texts can be viewed as part of a reading exercise focussing on specific parts of the texts. Secondly, the annotations can be queried. For example, a student working on an essay can query the annotation database for a list of examples of linguistically correct abstracts. Thirdly, students can be asked to create a specific type of annotated text themselves, focussing their attention on the structural features of a text. Both the annotations themselves, and the results of student tasks based on them are valuable input to the corpus as a whole and serve as input for the creation of new content and tasks.

Teachers can create lessons that consist of sequences of authentic (annotated) texts, tests and tasks. Students can also build their own corpus by uploading their own writing materials or editing directly in an online text editor. These materials can be checked by a teacher and be published in the corpus being used in a particular course. To exploit the potential of the corpus tool even further with additional software components, a cloze test application was developed and used in combination with an online multiple choice vocabulary test module for the assessment of general and domain-specific language proficiency. These also served to realise the evaluation activities as described below in the next section.

3. Experiments

Focus on reading and writing

To test the annotation and corpus inspection tools, an experimental course study will be run at the Faculty of Economics & Management in Utrecht. The study will take place in February 2007 during regular class hours in two to three consecutive weeks. Students' look-up behaviour when reading obligatory reading content and their comprehension of key concepts will be checked. Additional tasks involve writing a short summary of each of the texts, writing a number of annotations themselves, and answering several comprehension questions.

The technology should also facilitate support for the development of student *writing skills*. The more so because in competency-based curricula assessment and testing methods increasingly involve the production of products that are current in the practice of the students' future professional lives. This involves mastering the discourse of the professional community of the discipline one specialises in; this is a process that, according to Wilkinson (2003), is slow and partly subconscious for mother tongue speakers. To develop domain-specific writing expertise, sufficient input from reading of discipline-specific content and adequate feedback on productive assignments are needed. For Second Language (L2) users the acquisition of this expertise is more complex. Here additional guidance in writing is needed and can lead to improved quality if closely integrated with the domain (Wilkinson, 2003).

Two contexts for piloting the corpus-informed approach to the development of domain-specific writing competency have been selected, the first one being the Faculty of Education at the Rotterdam University of Professional Education and the second one being the Institute for Law at the Utrecht University of Applied Sciences. Studies at the latter organisation prepare for the qualification Bachelor of Law and lead to careers such as assistant in a solicitors' firm, court of law or community social services department. The experiment here aims to support students in learning how to write formal, professional letters. Activities involve reviewing structural elements, locating and annotating evidences of good/bad practice and providing peer feedback. Simons, Koenraad, and van der Werf (2007) provide a more detailed description of these experimental designs.

Experimenting with software for orals skills

For the instrumentation of experiments with a focus on oral skills the online video application 'Digital Video for the Digital University' (DiViDU) was selected as it offered functionalities to help raise awareness of personal language performance and could facilitate monitoring and feedback processes. The application was designed to support learning from professional practice as it forms the basis for competence-based learning. It addresses the complex problem of the absence of

frequent and meaningful interaction between practical experience and theory by providing a video-based learning environment which facilitates attention to theory, peer learning and coaching in the workplace. Central to a learning activity in DiViDU is a situation in professional practice that has been recorded on video. This could be a recording made by a student of his own or somebody else's (peer, expert) functioning in a professional context. The application supports task types for learning to analyze, learning to reflect and learning to demonstrate to what extent one has mastered a professional competency. As these play a crucial role in any tertiary professional education program, they allow the tool to be used generically (Kulk, Janssen, Gielis, & Scheringa, 2005).

This and the fact that the web application had been successfully used for the development of reflective practice in a variety of professional contexts, among which teacher education and dentistry, led to the adoption in the CATS project as it was expected that the educational potential could be enhanced by including a focus on the realisation of discourse in complex professional contexts. Noticing, for instance, could be stimulated with the help of analysis tasks of model performances.

The Utrecht and InHolland Faculties of Health Care have been experimenting with software that offers a focus on orals skills in the Oral Hygiene curriculum. For this, an element aimed at the development of interactional skills to promote attitudinal and behavioural change in dental hygienic habits has been selected. Students will be asked to analyse and react to recordings of model and peer sessions with patients and select fragments from personal recorded sessions that in their view demonstrate their competent professional behaviour and the related, specific linguistic aspects involved.

4. Project Evaluation

During the academic year 2006-2007, several experiments will be carried out to test the effectiveness and usefulness of the ICT tools that were developed. These will be measured in terms of improvement of students' language proficiency in general and in terms of academic language, and also in terms of the ability of students and teachers to use the tools and their appreciation of the tools.

Firstly, both at the beginning and at the end of the academic year, students will be given a number of tests to determine their language proficiency and their insight into their own proficiency. In addition, at the beginning of the academic year they will be asked to fill in a questionnaire about their language background. The first test is a ninety-item general multiple choice vocabulary test, since vocabulary is thought to be one of the most important factors in language proficiency (see e.g. Laufer, 1992, 1997; Nation, 2001). Furthermore, students will be given two cloze tests, one general and one subject-specific test. In these tests, both word knowledge and knowledge of spelling rules are tested. Finally, students will be given questionnaires in which they should estimate their own language

proficiency. The results of these tests at the beginning of the academic year will be analysed to determine which students fall within the category of low proficiency students and therefore need extra support. Furthermore, the results at the beginning of the academic year will be compared with those at the end of the academic year to test students' progress.

Secondly, to test the tools for each part of language proficiency (reading, writing, and oral proficiency), data will be collected from the various experiments described before in order to find answers to the following questions:

At student level:

- Do students use the support that is offered to them?
- Do students find the materials useful and easy to use?
- Do students improve their language competencies for study and profession?
- Does the autonomy of students increase: do they have more insight in their own language proficiency and in the way they can improve this?

At the level of the teacher:

- Are teachers better able to analyse the problems students have with language and to describe the competences students need in their study and work?
- Have teachers improved their didactic skills to support students' development of language skills?
- Do teachers find the materials and tools that are offered useful and easy to use?

Though the experiments described here have not all been carried out yet, some preliminary results will be presented in the next section.

5. Discussion

Our experiences with the use of ICT in a linguistically scaffolded curriculum strengthen our motivation to further research its potential. However, several conditions have to be fulfilled to make this pioneering stage a success. The first experiments show that preliminary activities such as student needs analysis and the specification of linguistic demands in curriculum tasks need expertise, time and attention. Besides, as seen in many innovative ICT projects, the professional development of language experts and content teachers is crucial for the adoption of the new methods in the curriculum. Both faculty staff and students need training in software use and – equally important – need to understand the related pedagogical concepts and methodology. All involved need to develop additional 'linguistic' information literacy skills. In this respect involvement of content teachers in software development and related task design appears a good strategy to reach these goals. For more

detailed information on the actual experiments and an analysis of the evaluation data, including user appreciation of the software tools, see (Simons, Koenraad & van der Werf, 2007).

Material collection for corpus development has proven to be more difficult than expected. Publishers, NGOs and commercial firms appear very reluctant to provide content and authentic documents in digital form, even despite our written testimonies guaranteeing fair use only and the application of anonymisation protocols. Resource development so far has therefore been largely dependent on products produced by senior students at the faculties involved. However, since we expect useful content to become increasingly available on the web (open source educational content, professional e-zines, community of practice portals, relevant social software content) we also plan to do some follow-up experiments using RSS-feeds and dedicated webcrawling tools for corpus development such as BootCaT (Baroni, Kilgarriff, Pomikálek, & Rychlý, 2006). The hope is that the examples of pedagogically informed corpus use as developed in the CATS project will help in building a case for future open content initiatives.

The collection and/or development of a wide range of relevant discourse and textual resources (corpora, pedagogic annotation, video recording of expert behaviour, production of tasks) is a time-consuming process. The project activities related to the applications used in this project were therefore deliberately developed to allow collaboration between institutions and teams. This is crucial for the critical mass needed to develop domain-specific implementations of the content-based framework. Content-based curriculum development and (re)use is only feasible in a well-organised community. The current project partner institutions are working towards a formal agreement to this end.

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Part 2: Realizing Culture

'International' programmes in the German-speaking world and englishization: A critical analysis*

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Abstract

The paper is divided into three parts. The first part discusses how many 'international' programmes exist in the German-speaking world. It looks at the extent to which English is coming to be used in German and Austria university academic and scientific discourse. The second part scrutinizes the rationales for and objectives of international programmes. The nature of internationally orientated courses being developed by these universities is discussed. This section examines the effects these trends are having on such higher educational institutions (HEIs) and what educational implications there are when English is used as an additional or replacement language for instruction. The final part adopts a broader European perspective. It asks what is driving the expansion of such courses. Here, in particular, the gatekeeper function English has acquired in a non-colonial setting, namely European higher education (HE), more generally is comparatively addressed.

1 Introduction

The first part (section 2) of the paper looks at the extent to which English is coming to be used in German-speaking university academic and scientific discourse. The nature of internationally orientated courses being developed by these universities is discussed. Following sections quiz the effects these trends are having on such higher educational institutions (HEIs) and what educational implications there are when English is used as an additional or replacement language for instruction.

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Here, in particular, the gatekeeper function English has acquired in a non-colonial setting, namely European higher education (HE), more generally is comparatively addressed.

The paper does not simply set out to ascertain the facts on the ground concerning university international programmes. Section 3 attempts to interrogate some of the rationales and aims both explicitly given and, more complexly, implicitly taken for granted when proponents of English in academia take the floor. Here the wide gap between claims and reality is striking. On the one hand we have political arguments for multilingualism in Europe and also academic reasoning which propagates the learning and using of foreign languages as a worthwhile educational, economic and personal benefit. On the other hand, the trends towards English monolingualism in academia in non-English-speaking countries can be variously documented. In particular the paper takes issue with the argument that English used in academic discourse simply constitutes a culturally neutral practice of *lingua franca* usage.

Section 4, which also functions as a conclusion, touches briefly on the role played by agency as opposed to structure in explicating these developments towards English as the language of instruction. One central intention of this paper is to consider the overall ‘impact’ of English used for academic and educational purposes on national levels. This is undertaken in both a descriptive and also an evaluative fashion. This entails an examination to assess the value of such programmes. Which groups of people, which social formations are propagating them, and why, is thus of interest to the investigator. This involves situating the claims and aims of international programmes in a broader macro-social context. The author was born in Britain and has worked in the German-speaking world for some decades. Arguably, this background and professional experience can serve to pinpoint some of the seemingly unintended consequences a trend to ‘englishization’ is having on German-language science and scholarship. It also allows a more sceptical and detached stance than German-speaking colleagues may be able to assume.

2. How many ‘international programmes’ are there in the German-speaking world?

Some macro-social data on ‘international programmes’ can set the scene. In a plenary lecture at the ICL 2003 conference in Maastricht Dr Nastansky (2004: 50), of the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), estimated that “less than 3% of German students are participating in so-called international programmes”. The significant changes that got under way from 1998 onwards happened at graduate level. 600 of the bachelor and master programmes (total 16,000) are (partially) English-medium instruction courses. If we take the subject spread of these courses, “there’s a strong concentration on economics and engineering” (2004: 51). Hellmann and Pätzold (2005: 27) conclude that after more than six years of such international study programmes their attractiveness for German university students remains limited. This need not surprise us, since the reasons for international

courses appear ambiguous. It is not always made explicit whether they are intended for German or foreign students.

2.1 *What sort of 'internationally-orientated' courses are appearing?*

Current programmes of study are being modified at universities in Germany and Austria, new courses with the label 'internationally-orientated' have been created and in some cases international faculty is being recruited (Motz 2005). This means that one finds "the unprecedented case in German society that national universities are instituting courses which are no longer in German as the language of instruction" in the words of House (2003: 570). She goes on in the next sentence to comment: "Using English in tertiary education is, of course, one important dimension of 'anglicisation'" — a term used by Fishman (1996). A major explicit target accompanying this has been the establishment of internationally acceptable degree programmes nominally to meet the demand for the so-called global higher education market. One might question the expressed aim, however. The expansion of such 'international' programmes does not appear to be demand-led. Except for the countries where traditionally German universities have sought to attract foreign students under the umbrella of development programmes and where hence tuition-free teaching is on offer, the main takers have recently been students from Eastern European countries and latterly Asia. The key feature is the subsidization by the German or Austrian taxpayers. Institutional and political objectives have attended this practice. Where tuition fees were sometimes not charged (in Austria) the government has told the universities it is part of the government's development aid policy. This was the reason why tuition fees were not charged for Turkish students in Austria for some time (personal communication, Vice-Rector for Finance at Vienna University of Economics and Business Administration). Especially engineering and science-based subjects are included and the aim of servicing German companies with trained personnel and know-how in Third World countries and thus expanding Germany's sphere of influence has long been the (not always explicitly stated) agenda. The take-up by foreign students of German university places may be a 'default' option. Those who could not get places in the US or UK, or could not afford them, often used German universities, with their relatively easy-going registration procedures as a stopping-off point in transit to the English-speaking world. The author's experience of working at six different German universities since 1970 forms the basis for this claim.

Within the Bologna framework a new impetus has been introduced and at many universities much thinking about international programmes in the German-speaking world has been stimulated. Yet long before Bologna an international orientation was present in German HE, as the author knows from personal experience of teaching on such a programme in the 1980s (see Alexander,

1988). In Europe with the German Federal government and latterly the European Union now partially financing this kind of initiative many other universities are currently considering this path.

Whereas the earlier international degree programmes in certain subjects, as we shall see below, were expecting and still expect foreign students in Germany to undertake their studies in German to varying extents, the current discourse prevailing appears to be shifting in places to an 'English-only' track. The controversies this has unleashed will in part be mentioned in this paper.

Ammon and McConnell carried out a survey of how widespread the use of English as an academic teaching language in Europe was. They write (2002: 7): "Universities in the non-Anglo-Saxon world usually suffer from less prestige than those of the major Anglo-Saxon countries. The former, therefore, find themselves in the dilemma of either teaching in English or of no longer attracting the desired number of foreign intellectuals and, consequently, of becoming internationally isolated or even provincial." At the same time there are doubtless many scholars and scientists who might dispute the premise concerning the unqualified desirability of foreign intellectuals. The argument about becoming isolated internationally also seems rather weak as justification for large-scale course reorganizations, one might think, in view of Germany's record of foreign trade. This and related points will be taken up in the conclusion.

2.2 What are the effects on individual universities of this trend?

In particular, if we take a look at the 'local impact' on individual universities, for example the FU-Berlin, we can find some far-reaching effects. Erling and Hilgendorf (2004) show that university courses at German universities are being affected by what Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (1999) call the 'englishization' process. Current programmes of study are being adjusted, novel 'internationally-orientated' courses together with internationally recruited faculty are being conceived (cf. the FU Berlin). One consequence is that English is a prerequisite for courses in Indian art history and Japanese studies and it is assumed for computer science and physics.

That this is no isolated case can be illustrated from practically every HEI in Germany. Consider the data on a selection of HEIs as shown in Table 1 (based on articles and descriptions on websites).

What goes on at the author's own university (the Vienna University of Economics-WU) in Austria is comparable. Here a programme of foreign language medium teaching has been set up. This consists of a self-selected (or voluntary) group of lectures and courses in English as the medium of instruction. It is nominally 'for visiting students' and originally conceived mainly for US students with whom this university has exchange agreements. Not many US students can study in German. As a quid pro quo for our home students being allowed to study at partner universities, courses in English are offered for foreign students when they come to Vienna.

The programme currently has about 60 classes in English. Many of these, up to a quarter, may be taught by visiting lecturers from the partner universities, in the USA and other countries. To give an idea of the size of the university it is useful to know that the university has over 20,000 registered students.

Table 1: 'International' Courses at German-speaking Higher Education Institutions (HEI)

Source	Higher Education Institution (HEI)	'International' Course
Dunst (2005)	Technische Universität Hamburg-Harburg/Hamburg University of Science and Technology (TUHH)	Bachelor program: General Engineering Science, 12 courses, including Biotechnology, Materials Science, Process Engineering
Voegeli (2005)	Hamburger Universität für Wirtschaft und Politik (HWP)	Master of International Business Administration, Master of Arts in European Studies
Soltau and Thelen (2005)	Universität Hamburg (University)	International Center for Graduate Studies—ICGS
Völler(2005)	Fachbereich Elektronik und Informatik der Hochschule für Angewandte Wissenschaften Hamburg (HAW)	Information Engineering, Europäischer Studiengang Elektrotechnik und Eletronik, European Computer Science
Kurtz (2005)	Universität Kaiserslautern	International Mathematics
Marx (2005)	Technische Universität (TU) Darmstadt	English-language courses are in the minority among the 25 Bachelor and Master Programmes that have been set up
Mindt (2005)	Hamburger Universität für Wirtschaft und Politik (HWP)	Master of European Studies (Euromaster), Master of International Business Administration
Clear (2005)	Fachhochschule Mannheim	Bachelor of Science: Biotechnology and Engineering Sciences (Automation Technology, Electrical Engineering, Manufacturing Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Process Engineering), Master of Science: Biotechnology
Erling and Hilgendorf (2004)	Freie Universität (FU-) Berlin	English is a prerequisite for courses in Indian art history and Japanese studies and it is assumed for computer science and physics
http://www.fu-berlin.de	Freie Universität (FU-) Berlin	East European Studies, (MA) Polymer Science (MSc), Veterinary Public Health (MSc in VPH)
http://www.ai.tuwien.ac.at	Technische Universität (TU) Wien / Vienna, Austria	According to course catalogue very many lectures and seminars are announced by English titles
http://www.klinikum.uni-heidelberg.de	Universität Heidelberg	Master of Science in International Health
http://www.uni-karlsruhe.de	Universität Karlsruhe (TU)	International Department, Tuition fee-based Master's courses
http://www.uni-hamburg.de	Universität Hamburg	Master of International Business Administration (German also)
http://www.uni-osnabrueck.de	Universität Osnabrück	According to course catalogue very many lectures and seminars are announced by English titles

It is interesting to consider the effect this situation has on European lecturers teaching in a second language. The author has interviewed some of the lecturers teaching on the programme to illuminate the relationship between content and language. A full-scale investigation is being planned. Lecturers were asked how important for them subject knowledge or subject thinking is as opposed to students' ability to express themselves in the foreign language. Lecturers were also asked what they make of the distinction between language and subject knowledge elements in their teaching, and how they are linked. A striking finding is that the lecturers are unused to talking (and perhaps reasoning) about such issues. Furthermore, there is very little explicit preparation for their task, being mostly a case of 'learning by doing'. And yet in view of the widespread use of L2 medium teaching now being engaged in one might expect more open and lively discussion to be going on. Even the question of ascertaining what is actually happening is seldom posed in the public domain. Against this background Clear (2005) is a rare example of a fairly overt treatment of some of the substantive problems lecturing in English non-native speakers face at the FH Mannheim.

2.3 *Using a 'foreign' language for educational purposes means what?*

Turning to what international programmes entail, we find at least three broad types. Type 1 uses English from beginning to end and assumes an adequate level of proficiency (Finland and the Netherlands are often mentioned as examples of this). Here we can speak of a 'replacement' language position, where lecturing staff and students are expected to pursue content courses in the 'foreign' language, English. Type 2 presents a cumulative increase in English as medium of instruction, the assumption being that English proficiency improves simultaneously; Poland is said to have adopted this approach (Nastansky, 2004: 53). In the case of type 3 courses universities use a 'foreign' language as an 'additional' language to facilitate the transition of international students to courses in the local language (German). This is practised in German universities, for example at the Technische Universität (TU) Darmstadt (Marx 2005) which has three programmes with the complete first year (2 semesters) being taught in English. Two courses then continue in English, while in a third students can choose to study in English or in part in German, with students being offered German classes in these courses (Marx, 2005: 172). The author describes how English is employed by German teachers to sensitize learners of German to the rules of German grammar, for example.

This is the point at which the more general issue of English as a literal or merely a metaphorical gatekeeper can be raised.

2.4 *Is English required?*

Much evidence is accruing for the thesis that English is acquiring a gatekeeper function in HE studies. Consider Bollag (2000) who asks whether English has become the New Latin for Europe. Actually, its scope is surely broader since many other parts of the world are following the trend today. Bollag writes:

“In chemistry laboratories in Jordan, university libraries in Cambodia, and college classrooms in Sweden, an odd language is in use. [...] The language is English, which is increasingly becoming the language of higher education and science around the world. The development is being stoked by the growing integration of the world economy, with the United States, the one remaining superpower and the world's economic locomotive, at its head. [...] And as colleges in more and more countries compete for the tuition money that foreign students can bring, the colleges are teaching their courses in English, so the students won't have to learn Thai or Greek to go to class.”

Competition for tuition fees in Germany did not apply until their recent introduction in some states. Ehlich (2005a and 2005b) sees the increasing englishization of academic work being in need of serious discussion. For him the contemporary and potential (unintended) effects are quite far-reaching. One of them, Ehlich claims, is that discussion of some of the substantive issues is simply being suppressed by ('durch eine Art smarter Nonchalance') easy-going canny nonchalance or by simply preventing discussion of language policies within the EU. Or one simply hears media reports and politicians claim that German scholars are underrepresented in academia as a whole and at a rhetorical disadvantage in international settings. Other commentators like Krischke (2004) see a kind of self-denial at work in Germany in offering teaching programmes in English and setting up self-imposed communication barriers.

2.5 *The German-speaking world compared with elsewhere*

A comparative viewpoint can help to put things into perspective. Ammon and McConnell (2002) have attempted to map the scope of English being used for European HE teaching purposes. The authors take as their starting point the perceived underrating of German at German universities. The authors surveyed other countries in Europe and seem to have gained some solace from the observed 'facts' that other countries, too, are offering English language international study programmes. Hand in hand with this trend goes the relaxing in places of the onetime 'educational' argument that foreign students visiting such universities in Europe be 'required', 'expected', 'requested' to enroll in courses

in the national language of the countries the universities are located in. In the case of Germany this would be German, of course.

As Ammon and McConnell note (2002: 6), despite claims to be developing “a multilingual community in which no single language or language community should dominate the others”, EU member countries have quietly made English the main foreign language in the schools. The HE trend seems to be in the same direction. Their study has the advantage of being one of the first to give us a snapshot view of to what extent English is being used (see also Maiworm & Wächter, 2002). Ammon and McConnell (2002: 172) summarize a general trend their questionnaires made visible across various scientific areas. Given the well-known trio of scholarly fields, namely: humanities, social sciences and natural sciences, they conclude that: “the use of English in teaching tended to increase in that order across major disciplines.” The social sciences had over twice the number of sub-disciplines with teaching in English as the humanities. After surveying the use of English at the TU Braunschweig, Gnutzmann (2006) has observed the same range from ‘anglophony’ (his term) to multilingualism in German academia, publishing and teaching and doing research.

The developments show some country specific differences. Ammon and McConnell (2002: 173) note that “the big-language countries, especially those with their own scientific tradition such as France and Germany, have been more reluctant and slower to introduce English into university teaching than the small-language countries.” “One reason [...] may well have been concerns about undermining the international standing of their language.”

This author would suggest that a more likely reason is reluctance on the part of certain groups of both universities and university teachers to accept the re-structuring effects caused by the Bologna process, which looks suspiciously like an Anglo-American paradigm (see Wright, 2005). The opposition is somewhat mute in the media, where education ministries seem to be able to control the airwaves under the general heading of the need to save money and to find alternative funding for universities. However in the informal discussions about accreditation and compatibility of various national university degrees and qualifications, there is still much room for manoeuvre and freedom of choice, if the debates about the ‘Dublin Descriptors’ are an index of what is going on (Joint Quality Initiative (JQI) 2004). The JQI group was made up of contributors from accreditation agencies in Norway, Sweden, Germany, Switzerland, Netherlands, Spain, UK, Denmark and Ireland. The discussion revolved around the desirability and possibility of agreeing on single common descriptors for the awards of Bachelor and Master degrees. The difficulties of establishing ‘compatibility’ between descriptors developed for national, regional or institutional purposes and reflecting the detail of local contexts seem insurmountable in certain circles. The author sees parallels with the discussions about the implementation of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Council of Europe 2001a). (See also Fulcher 2004 and North 2004.)

3 Rationales for and objectives of international programmes

Let us now consider some of the reasons articulated in the public domain for expanding international study programmes in Germany and Austria. One is the reputed need for an increase of foreign students to make up an arbitrary 10% of the total student population. Germany and its HEIs are expected make themselves more popular and visible abroad. The German University that has been established in Cairo with English as the medium of instruction is debated in the media as a benchmark (Tadros 2002). There are people (Ehlich (2005a) included) who query whether such a rationale makes political sense. The establishment of American universities around the world would indicate that spheres of influence still clearly play a role geopolitically. The fact that British universities such as Nottingham have started Chinese campuses suggests that HE is a player in this 'game' also.

Some observers note that domain loss for the use of German science and scholarship is being encouraged by this development (Laurén, Myking, & Picht, 2004). However not everybody is pessimistic. It is as if they are informed by the proverb 'every cloud has silver lining'. This appears to be the case with Ammon and McConnell who note (2002: 174) that the use of English for university teaching in Germany will not only strengthen the international standing of English but also that of German (seeing an analogous situation in France). They write:

“Originally these programs, or at least some of them, had been set up to rely solely on English, with no role at all for German. However, German was generally introduced as an obligatory component. [...] Because the programs have been successful in attracting new foreign students, who otherwise would not have studied in Germany, they have at the same time helped to increase the number of learners and speakers of German as a foreign language.”

In other words, the 'replacement' role of English is being downplayed.

3.1 *English as an 'additional' or 'replacement' language of instruction*

It would help if the highly significant decision to employ English as a replacement language were debated in a more overt fashion. A parallel situation can be found in Norway according to Ljosland (2005). Ljosland's paper discusses a noteworthy piece of Norwegian legislation designed to change the language of instruction at universities. In the course of her research the author interviewed the minister of education and sought clarification of the law. The minister's intention was “for English medium courses to be a supplement to, and not a replacement for, Norwegian medium courses. On the other hand, the minister explained that she felt that keeping such a clause would be too strong a signal against offering English medium courses, so the clause had to be repealed.” Such top-down

interventions reflect a pattern to found in Germany and Austria too. And, as Skutnabb-Kangas (2003: 48-9) argues: “When dominant languages, like English, are learned subtractively, at the cost of the mother tongues, they become killer languages.” Perhaps no-one in Europe is advocating that English become the exclusive medium of instruction in school or university. Yet when English begins to ‘replace’ German in certain fields of research and scholarship, say at postgraduate level, in the (harmless?) pursuit of internationalization, who can say what effect in the long run this will have on German as the language of science and scholarship? (See Ehlich (2005a: 49) and Weinrich (2001).) Notice also what the Council of Europe’s advocacy of ‘plurilingualism’ says. It has invoked the importance of language learning in terms of strengthening democratic procedures, interpersonal interaction and citizenship. The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe declared a European Day of Languages (Council of Europe 2001b), to be held on the 26th September of each year. Consider some of the noble aims underlying its work:

- “Respect for all languages as valid modes of expression for their users.”
- “Developing plurilingualism among individuals.”
- “The Assembly’s view that the opportunity to learn languages is a right for all and that lifelong language learning is increasingly important in today’s Europe.”

The diverse perspectives which different languages enable in the knowledge creation process are worthy of mention. The tie-in with the Humboldtian and Sapir-Whorfian discussion of the intrinsic and hence culturally and linguistically relative element of language acquisition and use is an area which needs to be discussed more openly also.

To be sure, the development of monolingualism in Europe seems remote and unthinkable for many. Yet the experience of Norway and other countries where ‘small’ languages are used would suggest that the Council of Europe’s stated intentions concerning plurilingualism are not being helped by legislation. Short-term or Bologna-driven practices clearly overlook the constitutive and intrinsic role language plays in the processes of ‘Erkenntnisgewinnung und Erkenntnisformulierung’ (knowledge creation and knowledge articulation) and ‘Erkenntnisvermittlung’ (knowledge transmission) (Ehlich, 2005a: 48). Ehlich speaks of the benefits of multilingualism and plurilingualism (2005a: 49):

“Individuelle Mehrsprachigkeit von Wissenschaftlern kostet Lebenszeit, bringt freilich kognitiven Gewinn. Sie ist allerdings nicht risikofrei; nicht jede Verunsicherung läßt sich in neue Erkenntnis umsetzen. Das Ressentiment gegen Mehrsprachigkeit speist sich kontinuierlich auch aus solcher Frucht. Diese freilich ist für wissenschaftliches Arbeiten, so meine ich, nicht förderlich.”

(Author translation: Individual multilingualism of academics and scientists costs time (part of one's life). At the same time it can provide cognitive gain (or benefits). It is not without its risks, however. Not every uncertainty can be transformed into new knowledge. The distrust of (or resentment against) multilingualism is fed continuously by such fuel. And this is certainly not helpful for academic work, I would say.)

Ehlich's position (2005a) clearly acknowledges that a plurilingual perspective allows a broader and more complex perception of the world. And this can offer significant benefits for scientific endeavour.

Possibly, in the long run, monolingual academic and scientific articulation will come to be encouraged by the use of English as lingua franca. But perhaps 'pure' lingua franca usage is not an adequate view of what is happening on the ground. Consider how non-English speaking scholars and scientists are required to follow Anglo-American style guides and rhetorical conventions, if they want to get published in reputable (i.e. English-speaking) academic journals (Canagarajah 2002).

3.2 English as an academic and scientific 'lingua franca'

Whether English in academic settings is 'really' a lingua franca is by no means certain. Let us quote Gnutzmann's entry (2000: 356) in the *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning*:

"A language that is used as medium of communication between people or groups of people each speaking a different native language is known as a lingua franca."

The author goes on to note the historical reasons for applying this term to English today. He also claims that English of non-native speakers is culturally neutral. But Gnutzmann is honest enough to comment: "In view of the omnipresence of American politics and its value system, however, the preceding remark on the role of culture is more theoretical than practical in nature." This suggests some adjusting to the reality of today's situation and a reluctance to ignore material and institutional groundings. This is not the case for all scholars who write about the so-called 'lingua franca' usage of English (ELF), as can be seen by consulting House (2003). There is no space to present the claims House makes for English being a 'language of communication' and not a 'language of identification' when used among L2 users. Mysteriously and apparently without any social pressure, for House, "ELF users are agentively involved in the construction of event-specific interactional styles and frameworks" (2003: 573). This makes ELF speakers seem to be free-floating, autonomous monads (aka agents) possessing merely an unqualified or unspecified L1, with no prior educational, professional or academically disciplined socialization. One is reminded of numerous sociolinguistic studies dealing with differences and ethnographic data on who uses what language where or when,

with whom, for what purpose and why. While fascinating and deeply challenging in intellectual terms, one can frequently get the impression that many such studies seem to lack anchorage in the real world.

Social structural factors — such as which groups, social classes and economically and politically dominant groups (*élites*) influence, affect, channel or even (pre-)determine the paths of sociolinguistic variation and behavioural ‘choices’ — seldom figure centre-stage in these investigations. The price of academic and scholarly specialization inevitably appears to mean that often the trees rather than the wood undergo minute analysis. This is true of the *lingua franca* claims for English (Seidlhofer 2005). The worlds created by Conversation Analysis-bound interactants according to ethnomethodologically inspired scholars also come to mind. Fairclough (1995: 48) makes the important point in this context that “a statement of the conditions under which interactions of a particular type may occur is a necessary element of an account of such interactions”. The ‘institutional matrices’ (Fairclough, 1995: 49) of the discourse of ELF users mean that the events analyzed are nested in socially institutionalized settings, generated by and subject to economic forces, such as HE or business at varying layers or levels of hierarchy. We cannot ignore how power and inequality contribute both before and during these encounters in ‘English’ to their ‘construction’ as well. House (2003), among others, ignores them completely.

Hence, it is misleading, to say the least, to insist on the nomenclature of ‘*lingua franca*’ for English or even as the New Latin (see above), for a number of reasons. In the first place as Phillipson (2003: 40-41) shows, Latin was not connected during the Middle Ages with a nationally based political and economic order. English was and is, by contrast: with British imperialism based on industrial capitalism and subsequently the US-led neo-liberal world order. Secondly, Latin was limited in the scope of its usages to the sharply delimited written word of parchment and books. Although, as Graddol (2006: 44-45) claims, “the domination of English on the internet has probably been overestimated”, it is now virtually omnipresent and ubiquitous. Thirdly, and in the case of academic English usage, there are considerable numbers of native speakers unlike the case of Latin after the end of the Roman Empire. Hence asymmetrical usage exists for the (considerably more) L2 users of English. Phillipson notes pointedly:

“This communicative inequality is obscured when English is referred to as a ‘*lingua franca*’, a concept that appears to assume communicative equality for all” (2003: 40).

Verschueren (1989: 33) formulates succinctly one of the problems of English as a global academic language:

“The quasi-universal use of English, the argument goes, produces communicative inequality. All non-native speakers are at a disadvantage. [...] They will always be swimming in a raincoat, whether engaged in business negotiations or a scientific discussion during an international conference.”

The research on English in international settings has adopted the label of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) (Jenkins 2000). Some useful detailed data is accumulating from this research. However, it has to be said that in the case of English in German-speaking academia we are faced with a markedly different issue. The practice of many English as medium of instruction (EMI) programmes entails groups of people who speak the same native language. It is the prospect of this artificially constructed sociolinguistic setting which international study programmes are bringing closer to reality. As Ehlich (2005a) says, in essence students and academics are being prepared at the cost of their own economies to become employees in the US-American national economic system. The brain drain is a fact. Countries have to re-invest additional funds if they want to attract their own graduates back to their economies, even! That the use of languages in educational settings is a key economic factor has been acknowledged by Neville Alexander (quoted by Graddol, 2006: 116):

“[O]ne of the fundamental reasons for the economic failure of post-colonial Africa south of the Arabic zone is the fact that, with a few important exceptions, mother-tongue (home language) education is not practised in any of the independent African states.”

4 Looking at a broader European perspective

It is practically a commonplace in the analysis of social phenomena — and, after all, the processes of educational change we are looking at can be viewed as such — that the analyst may adopt different stances dependent on basic assumptions. For a structuralist analysis the constituent elements of a structure are somehow predominant and individual human factors are underdetermined or even neglected. On the other hand, one can view social processes as being the product of humans', as social actors', interpretations, thus highlighting the agentive element in actions. In short, one might argue in connection with these developments in academia that the role played by agency as opposed to structure also needs to be more closely focused upon. Indeed, both structure and agency need complementary consideration in analyzing broad social processes.

Comparing international programmes in European HE we can see interesting parallels but also different focuses. For example, at the macro-social level Lehtikoinen (2004), from the Ministry of Education in Helsinki, claims that in Finland English-taught programmes and English-language education have helped to increase the visibility of Finnish HE elsewhere in Europe. At the micro-

social level the decision of the Senate of the University of Helsinki (on 15 March 2006) to introduce 30 more English-language Master's courses in the next three years reflects this situation. However, Lehtikoinen noted that in the case of some music and design courses only foreigners are admitted, thus leading to fierce controversies in the Finnish press. One reason has to do with the fact that Finnish HE does not charge tuition fees for foreigners. Such developments are so far unlikely in German and Austrian HE, but perhaps starting in the Netherlands.

Far more research on the true beneficiaries of such programmes is required. In the case of the Third World oriented courses this is relatively easy to ascertain, especially when scholarships and grants are offered in African, Arabian and Asian countries. The policies and the practice of the German Ministry for Overseas Development can be analyzed. Also the role played by the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) is significant, as too is the role of business-allied organizations such as the Carl Duisberg Gesellschaft and others in attracting students to study in Germany. Furthermore, the fact that tuition fees were hitherto nonexistent in Germany and Austria plays a role in assessing the take-up factor by foreign students.

4.1 What is driving the expansion of such courses?

It is not always clear who (that is to say, which groups, people, associations) are actively advocating, promoting and providing resources for foreign-language medium instruction. At the macro-social and national level Grin (2001) has calculated the considerable economic costs incurred by European states as they expand English teaching. At the same time expenditure on teaching other languages is being reduced. Yet in HE the money being allocated to reorganize or develop international courses is often minimal. It is surely irrational to expect such courses to have no extra or additional cost to anyone. If, as is likely, the public purse (the taxpayer) is expected to pick up the bill, it would help to know where the funds are being invested. As in the case of the (private) German university in Cairo it is clear that German companies are making funds available. At the same time in some universities, such as the author's own, the costs are quite often being 'externalized'. Scientists are simply 'expected' to master English somehow. Lecturers and students are expected to make up the slack. This involves their improving their own knowledge of the second language, by paying for language tuition or to study abroad (Ehlich 2005b). Non-English-speaking academics and graduates appear to be submerging their own interests in a group-driven project. (For a comparison with the discourse of inevitability and the similarities between globalization ideologists and englishization experts, see Alexander 2006.)

Of course it is useful to speculate about who is likely to benefit from this development. But also the issue of who finances, sustains or 'allows' certain areas of research and teaching and the

manner in which they are to be pursued in public institutions such as universities is a long running one. There are fashions with pendulum swings affecting many university departments today. Clearly, science and scholarship in a market economy are responsible to their paymasters. It is likely that such broader commercial trends surrounding the academic use of English influence the way in which the issue of 'englishization' is viewed. No wonder that certain observers see it as essentially 'benevolent': 'And what is wrong with English being used as lingua franca after all?' We hear people saying this at conferences. (The discussion after Ehlich's plenary lecture (2005b) at a conference in Bergamo contained several contributions along these lines.) We can see how the organizational changes being engineered in HE itself, which go beyond the epiphenomenal use of English issue, are closely linked with this. (See Alexander 2006.)

4.2 À quoi bon, cui bono, wem nützt, who benefits from multilingualism and plurilingualism?

Finally, we might also ask whether such higher educational practices and policies under the umbrella of the Bologna Process seem to be constraining the development of true multilingualism. This has on many occasions been advocated as one of the major benefits of the developing European Higher Education Area. Preliminary data from a pilot study by the author indicate a narrowing of perspective, in that few lecturers in management and business are encouraged to lecture in other languages than German and English. The harmless sounding phrase 'international study programme' perhaps conceals a more controversial issue than may seem obvious at first sight. Lehtikoinen (2004: 44) at least addresses this issue face on when she says:

“[W]e try to avoid speaking about English-language education; we always say foreign-language education, and everyone knows that in practice it means English, only English.”

In view of some of the unresolved and controversial issues concerning the rationales behind such courses, as mentioned in part two, more research is certainly desirable. A review of the research done on non-native speakers of English working as lecturers through the medium of English is needed. Then more empirical studies would help. This could be done along the following lines. Reports of the self-perceptions of non-native speakers of English teaching in EMI would be interesting. Self-report questionnaires could be used, followed by semi-structured interviews with a selection of lecturers. And most importantly students' perceptions of their lecturers teaching through the medium of English could also be elicited, perhaps by means of questionnaires plus interviews with a selection of the students on such programmes. But we also need more research directed at the macro-social

level mentioned in part 2. This needs to engage with the broader political and economic framework and practices surrounding HE in Europe.

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Developing a civic education vision and practice for foreign-additional-other (FAO) language and content integration in higher education*

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Abstract

A model of language and specialty-area content teaching and learning in Japan is built on a concern to develop dialogically-engaged language communal communication (DELCC) in class to be extended outside in the wider society. This model is applicable to university contexts in so far as the FAO language is conceptualized and practiced for life content enrichment rather than operational or academic success. DELCC development is linked to an FAO (foreign-additional-other) English language study for life-long participation in effecting constructive social change. Adopting a one-world ontology of knowing about, being and acting in the world, this paper maintains that DELCC development in FAO language university study can serve to enhance young adults' greater participation and agency for constructive social change across the higher education curriculum, a development which can transfer to local and global citizenship after the completion of university.

1. Higher education foreign-additional-other language study: integration with academic content (ICLHE) as a way forward

In many parts of the world, particularly in Europe, there have been efforts to integrate foreign-additional-other (FAO) language and academic content study at university. This development is nowhere more evident than at institutions of higher learning such as Maastricht University in Holland where, if I understand the situation correctly, students have options in studying academic discipline content in the native L1 (Dutch) and/or in an FAO language of wider use and communication (e.g. English). Arguments supporting integration are principally (1) that the learning of the FAO language can be enhanced, (2) that students can engage with knowledge in more than

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one language, (3) that students – for example foreign students – who do not have (good enough) command of the local L1 (e.g. Dutch) language can study academically in the FAO language, and (4) that students can think of themselves and others and the world in different ways. As a result of a deeper and more cohesive integrated academic content language and communication study, students can also further develop intercultural competence and knowledge learning and communication confidence.

While in Europe integration seems to be driven more by arguments 2 and 3 above, in Japan, where I teach and research in English at a private university in a sociology department, arguments in favor of integration would be driven more by 1 and 4 above. Japanese students prior to university entrance have studied FAO English language for six years, chiefly as a subject and for the purpose of passing university entrance tests. With some additional competence and confidence in the development of language-using skills, they are ready and able to handle academic content study in English as well as in Japanese. Educational authorities, both governmental such as the Ministry of Education (MEXT), or private such as the English Language Education Council (ELEC) have, in fact, strongly urged universities to offer a certain percentage – from 10% to 30 % – of their academic content courses in FAO English. Unfortunately many universities including where I work, Kwansei Gakuin University in the Kansai area in Japan, remain oblivious to any serious discussion in favor of integration. Academic content faculty at Kwansei Gakuin teach exclusively in the L1 Japanese language and are particularly blind to any need for integration. And while most FAO English language university faculty continue to conceive and practice pedagogy in terms of language as a subject, and/or language for unspecified content-based communication, some FAO English language faculty are aware of the need and benefits of academic content and FAO language study integration.

If there is to be any serious planning and then implementation of content and FAO language integration at university in Japan, it will, in my estimation, have to be initiated by FAO English language faculty and, at least initially, take shape and form in the FAO English portion of the curriculum. An integration of academic content and FAO English language university study, in Japan or elsewhere, needs to be concerned with students' communicative and dialogic engagement with knowledge. Studying, for example sociology, content in FAO English language at university, whether in Japan or elsewhere, addresses all four of the arguments above in support of integration. Young adults can develop sensitivity to language, to communication, to others, to (re)constructing worldly knowledge, and to their identity formation as plurilingual students. As a language educator committed to helping students nurture a sociological imagination in both their L1 and in an FAO language of wider use and communication, integrated academic and FAO language study is enriching in the sense that students experience the joy of learning to use language to connect with others in knowing and communicating about the world.

The FAO language education portion of university curriculum is one ideal area in which to initiate efforts at a more politically, socially, and culturally developed higher education. Nainby, Warren, and Bollinger (2003) perceive a conceptual bridge between contemporary communication theory and critical educational practice. At present there exist, they argue, conceptually two separate worlds, and there is difference between the linguistic world of signifiers and the world of “things” such as mental experiences, sensations, ideas, concepts, or signifieds. One world is the world we communicate with or the entire set of symbols, sounds, gestures, pictures and other things we use to communicate. The second world is the world we talk about, all the various subjects that move us to talk to one another. Nainby, Warren, and Bollinger believe teachers must work with students to rethink and interrogate how and why we constitute the world as we do. The representational two-worlds ontology model fails to account for the complexity of lived experiences of people in class: the emphasis remains on systemic meanings rather than minute communicative acts.

Giving students an ontological vocabulary, argue Nainby, Warren and Bollinger (2003), that will lend classroom activities a sense of immediacy is a crucial component of an empowering and democratizing education. A one-world ontology, where language and communication have *immediate* effects on teaching and learning practice(s), can redirect language and content education toward a more experiential, non-technical and “values-laden” learning approach. But more than an ontological vocabulary is necessary to nurture an empowering emancipatory learning. Young adults in Japan come from pre-university schooling that has, for the most part, been decided for them and where they have had little if any investment in decisions taken on the curriculum. It will be necessary to set up structures in class where students have the rights and obligations to voice, to question, to participate in shared understandings, to make educated guesses about things they either do not know or may dismiss as being incapable of being known. These structures must give students opportunities to transform their thinking and practice(s) to liberate them from previously unexamined and accepted outer-directed authoritarian thinking and practice(s).

I wish to show in this paper that there are structural, cultural, and political barriers that preclude discussion and debate on the merits or demerits of an explicit language and content integration, and thus limit or block serious efforts to effect such integration. This paper, however, will go further than arguing in favor of the actual implementation of integration. I will also contend that an explicit integration of FAO (e.g. English) language and academic content (e.g. sociology and social work) study can serve as an *important means* to a wider educational aim: the development and nurturing of critical thought and feeling directed towards an empowering study that helps students become more civic-minded and aware of their social responsibilities to one another. I will argue that a context-sensitive integration of FAO language and academic content study is not an end in and of itself, but can usefully serve as an important means to develop a dialogically rich classroom study

society where students and teachers together engage with knowledge for the purpose of enhancing a sociological imagination.

By sociological imagination I mean a mindset and emotive state that views the world not only in a variety of unusual ways and/or which seeks to go beyond surface observations of empirical realities. A sociological imagination as McKinney (2007) maintains, places individual and social situations into historical, structural and cultural contexts aiming to gain more comprehensive – I would add shared if not always agreed on – understandings of the world. I have begun to develop a framework of teaching and learning in all my classes which integrates not only FAO (i.e. English) language and academic (i.e. sociology and social work) study, but which does so within an educating framework that Flyvbjerg (2001) calls a *phronetic* approach to educating. A *phronetic* orientation to teaching and learning prioritizes what people (e.g. students and teachers) value in their study over and above how they improve and enhance their technical (*techné*) or knowledge (*epistémé*) development.

Suzuki (1978: 71), referring to the Japanese higher education situation, sees a basic problem with the conceptualization and practice of particularly language teaching at university in Japan. He argues there is inadequate attention to and consideration of language study as *education* and language learning as *educational growth*. An English language teacher must be aware of the notion that his work consists of two basic elements, that is English and teaching. We English faculty think only about English ignoring the element of teaching. Since teaching can be included in a broader concept of education it is possible to name our deficiency as lack of attention to education.

Suzuki's insight into the need to consider language learning as educational growth may also apply to knowledge acquisition. Teachers who focus on teaching content may also focus on the subject matter, and give too little attention to the study of, for example, sociology or economics, as educational growth.

Mark (1990: 11) presents a language teaching model for the 21st century which highlights the role of teachers as educators where the teacher and students alike have room for personal growth and betterment in understanding themselves and the world we live in. The model that Mark (1990) offers has a multidimensional view of language learning and teaching where thematic content and learning processes intersect with various channels of experience (e.g. perception, attitude, information and knowledge, and skills), and also with one's individual and social identity (e.g. lifestyle, sense of purpose, past experience). The central concerns of this intersection are autonomy, responsibility, self-esteem, cooperation, and participation.

Building on Suzuki (1978), Mark (1990), Flyvbjerg (2001), Nainby, Warren and Bollinger (2003), and McKinney (2007), this paper proposes a dialogic engagement framework of university foreign-additional-other (FAO) language study that is focused on integrating the study of and about

language within a deep content area such as sociology. This integration of FAO language and deep content study is further embedded within a student empowerment learning framework where integrated language and content study helps develop students' civic responsibilities to one another as they study. An integrated language and content teaching and learning can be built on a concern to develop what I call dialogically-engaged language-content communication (DELCC) in class to be extended outside in the wider society. Following Nainby, Warren, and Bollinger (2003) who advocate a one-world ontology of knowing about and being and acting in the world, this paper argues that DELCC development in FAO language university study can enhance young adults' participation and agency for constructive social change across the higher education curriculum, a development which can transfer to local and global citizenship after tertiary education.

2. Barriers to setting up an *institutionally* integrated academic content and FAO English language study at university in Japan

For those readers who may not be very familiar with the Japanese university situation regarding FAO language and academic content study, allow me to briefly describe in general the situation at my university and within the sociology and social work department. Though one can not easily generalize to other universities in Japan or outside Japan based on any one "case study" there are, I believe, connections between what goes on at Kwansei Gakuin with what is the reality at other universities both in and outside Japan.

All FAO (e.g. English, French, German, Spanish, Chinese, Korean, Russian) language study is treated the same at Kwansei Gakuin – even though students have had six years of required English language study in Japan prior to university entrance. FAO language study is confined within the general education (*ippan kyoiku* in Japanese) portion of the overall curriculum, and is structurally separated from specialized study (*semmon kyoiku* in Japanese) of sociology and social work. Students study FAO language only in their first two years. They have two required courses in English and two required courses in one other FAO language both in first and second year. FAO language study is conceived and practiced as subject study and focuses on knowing about the language – its grammar, its lexis, its literature, etc. – and/or how to communicate in the language, but with no firmly assured and coordinated content base required. FAO language teachers in general teach *about* the language and/or use the language in order to help students develop language using skills such as faster reading, more fluent writing or speaking, and more coherent writing. The focus, as Suzuki (1978), and Chastain (1980) point out, remains on language study as an end in and of itself.

From first year to fourth year there are very few if any elective courses offered either in my department or in the university as a whole which do not, at least structurally or institutionally, focus on FAO language *subject-content study* and/or nebulous *communication learning*. There are no required

courses outside the general education portion of the curriculum which offer students opportunities to study sociology and/or social work in any language other than the L1, Japanese. Though my department as well as other faculties at Kwansei Gakuin employ visiting professors on a temporary basis – three months to one year at a time – these people, if they teach at all, teach (almost always elective only) courses in whatever FAO language – usually English for practical purposes – they wish to. This is not as a result of any institutional policy with regard to language and content study. It is entirely at the discretion of the individual teacher which language she or he will employ in academic content study.

The absence of FAO language-content integration at Kwansei Gakuin exists for a variety of cultural, social, and political reasons which I will attempt to now further explain. According to Hyde (2002), many Japanese teachers and learners of FAO English may perceive FAO language taught in school as being harmful and capable of undermining proficiency in their Japanese language, and/or development of their Japanese identity. Many Japanese, Hyde feels, do not see English as a communication system; they see it as inert knowledge to be put to use for the purpose of passing university entrance exams and forgotten or to be used in emblematic rather than truly communicative contexts. In theory FAO English language is communicatively useful, but in practice, Hyde argues, it remains divorced from real speakers/writers and listeners/readers and any real communicative purposes. McVeigh (2002) argues that Japan-appropriated uses of English – for example, for student sorting and certification purposes – are veiled by public pronouncements for the need to teach genuine language and language use. The result, says McVeigh, is that the study of English becomes non-communicative, perverting a basic reality of language awareness and use.

One serious barrier then to setting up an institutionally supported integrated FAO language and content curriculum sees language learning, and in particular FAO language learning, having little relevance, at least in practice, to the idea of language education for human development. This view of language education may be resisted on the grounds that as a foreign import English is inappropriate in the Japanese communication learning context. This resistance to a wider educational view of FAO language educating is unfortunate. It opposes calls – for example, from the Japanese Ministry of Education's (MEXT) Action Plan of 2003 – for language learning to go beyond a soft linguistic, technical role and responsibility, and keeps general education compartmentally separated from specialized education at university. The MEXT 1991 revised guidelines for university curriculum clearly advocated connecting general and specialized higher education.

Another major obstacle to integrated FAO study at university is that there remains serious ambiguity and ambivalence in Japan regarding the reasons young adults (e.g. university students) ought to study an FAO language, and particularly a language of wider use and communication such as English. The government of Japan, in particular its Ministry of Education (MEXT), promotes the

study and learning of English language in order to enhance human development and the ability of its users to more widely understand what is happening in the world, and more clearly and widely express Japanese ideas (Japan University Council Report 1998, 2002 and 2003 Action Plans). Yet, on the other hand, there remains a focus on language study as a means of gaining certification and qualification credits for continuing on in one's schooling or in the work place, not as an additional means of engaging with academic content study.

A third major obstacle to integrated FAO university language education in Japan is a failure of institutions and their faculty to value language study as an integral part of the total curriculum provision, as Chastain (1980) says they must. Chastain argues that in most institutions FAO language education is considered a hurdle to fulfilling graduation requirement, and an isolated compartmental area of study. Dubin and Olshtain (1986) ask the degree to which students need to depend on knowledge and use of English to access subject matter of interest and need. FAO English language study in Japan suffers from its continued conceptualization and practice as a foreign object, where its study and learning continue to focus on technical aspects rather than more important interactional, political, interpersonal, and intercultural issues and student invested concerns.

Though there has been little if any discussion of the merits of integrating FAO English language and academic sociology/social work at Kwansei Gakuin University, and particularly within sociology and social work until very recently, I have found that the Japanese Ministry of Education's advocacy of FAO language study for human development fits in very nicely with an explicit integration of language and academic content. I have also found students more engaged in acquiring information in the FAO language as well as in their own L1 when the focus is on an extended deep study of a sociology or social work area that interests students. I have also observed that students are more active in their use of the FAO language when an integrated approach is utilized. Furthermore, I have some evidence from student feedback in class that human development is taking place on a more conscious level, for example, students working together more actively to solve sociology problems and to ask penetrating sociological questions when there is integrated language and content study.

3. The beneficial implementation of a one-world ontological concept and practice of integrated content and FAO English language.

Schools and teachers must, Splitter (1995) maintains, at the very least offer students a realistic way into the larger questions of life such as:

1. Who am I as an individual and as a social being?
2. Does (my) life have a purpose?
3. Where did the/our world come from and where is it going?

4. What kind of world do we want to live in?
5. What does it mean to live well?

Splitter (1995) argues educational quality must be defined in terms of the thinking and feeling development of students, but that schools are and continue to be agents of manipulation and preservers/protectors of the status quo rather than facilitators for personal enrichment and liberation. Splitter believes that teachers must recognize that in the real world outside the classroom “thinking among ordinary citizens may be more of a threat than a priority” (1995: 1). Splitter advocates a *Philosophy for Children* to guide educators in their teaching of better thinking:

1. argumentation skills,
2. inquisitive skills, especially searching for reasons and not accepting what is given,
3. identification, modification, and application of criteria to form judgments, and make decisions,
4. making distinctions to allow people to see the complexity of a situation, an event, a problem or solution, an act or decision,
5. the ability to identify relationships to help us make sense of things (e.g. (cause(s) and effects, means and ends, parts and wholes),
6. the exercise of moral imagination by which we think of different ways of proceeding (thinking and acting), and also represent to ourselves and others alternative moral/ethical positions and world views.

Human development and instilling socially beneficial values in young people are the publicly stated goals of education in Japan. Language higher education, integrated with content study, has an important role to play in the implementation of these goals. The implementation of human development higher education through FAO – or native Japanese language – learning integrated with knowledge acquisition and engagement, requires the creation and development of a study framework to serve as an ongoing resource that creates opportunities for civic education dispositions to be learned and practiced. The key to creating and further developing this study framework is a collective thought and action by and of teacher and students to inquire into, for example, their sources of knowledge and differences in values. A study framework that prioritizes people consciously making efforts to interrogate each other’s understanding(s) of a problem, or a proposed plan, or a decision already made, will contribute to enhancing communal awareness of civic responsibility.

Dialogic rule-making to create and further develop civic responsibility dispositions begins with a structural re-orientation of study and learning away from an authoritarian pedagogical

approach that banks knowledge and/or certifies a person to have properly learned an inert body of knowledge or technical skill(s). The key components of dialogic rule-making are:

- a. the active valuing and promoting of inquisitiveness and hypothesis, and emotional as well as cognitive intelligence,
- b. the active valuing of language and communication being both individually and socially responsible and accountable, where one's language and communication is always a "work in progress,"
- c. the active valuing of and commitment to a full power-sharing relationship of teaching and learning which does not justify teacher or institutional control over students or their study,
- d. the active valuing of and commitment to using the lived experiences and life stories teacher and students have as the basis of life and civic responsibility study and learning.

I have chosen to experiment with constructing a framework for civic education study, and for interrogating and hypothesizing about knowledge sources, power relations, and in particular the non-neutral and ideological nature of teaching and learning. With students I have set up a negotiating framework of study where the curriculum evolves from suggestions and proposals in class. For example, although a particular text or other study material(s) has/have been decided upon for administrative purposes – and this is not usually the case especially in seminar classes – students and I negotiate the use of that text or material(s). This experiential civic education and negotiated study approach is not undertaken unless students agree that it is in their interests to participate in that approach. Discussion of the benefits or non-benefits of such an approach is taken at the start of every course. At all times there is discussion and whenever necessary – for example when a consensus is not reached – voting for or against a particular decision or course of action or the adoption/implementation of a particular class or outside-class activity or activities. I take as one course starting point a sharing of our lives in an activity I call *YOUR LIFE – MY LIFE* where what we are willing to share with one another – places we have been or would like to go, things and objects we value, people we have met or would like to meet – is used to stimulate inquiry and hypothesis about who we are, what we value and believe, and what we hope to accomplish in life.

First class and on going study in all classes I teach at Kwansei Gakuin, a first-year basic sociology seminar, a first-year FAO language learning – primarily skills' development – course/class, two second-year content-based FAO language study classes, and a third year research seminar course/class begins with and continually focuses on sharing understandings of,

- a. our responsibilities to, and expectations of, self and each other in class (e.g. how we evaluate teaching and learning and study development),

- b. our shared enthusiasm and negotiated agreement of and about sociology content using both students' L1 – principally when they talk with one another – and the FAO English language – principally in all public class communication,
- c. class study – what and how we study – and what we need to reflect on to prepare for and review study from one week to the next,
- d. how important it is to respect self, care for others, and be able to give and take in study – this is prompted by using three FAO English songs,
- e. the importance of dialogue in class – e.g. students with me, students with each other in chosen groups all having sociological names – and our jointly making decisions on all important curriculum matters such as how study evolves, out-of-class assignments, testing, etc.

Everything that students and I discuss or practice/do is reviewed and reflected upon in the shape of reflection notes, prepared first by myself as an imperfect model of what one can recall or wishes to recall of a discussion or activity, then after the first class meeting, by both myself and students (in groups of their own choosing) where we compare our recall and understanding(s) of sociology content-driven communication topics and practices. Reflection notes and reflection-review is not the only dialogic rule or tool employed in our study. The class is further structured with greetings and announcements, submission of agreed upon homework assignment(s) and when requested small group or whole class review of homework, and negotiated discussion of new study and/or study already begun, but which has been left unfinished (e.g. a topic for shared discussion, a song we began to listen to and/or sing, a story that we began to read and discuss together, etc.).

An integrated academic content and FAO language study that aims for human development and nurturing civic-minded awareness and behavior goes beyond simply *including* students in the planning and implementation of study. An empowering orientation to university study remains problematical in Japan, though I have heard there are in place various structures that allow students to participate in their learning in, for example, Europe and North America and perhaps other geographical areas as well. The DELCC framework that I have conceived and attempted to put into practice at Kwansei Gakuin University, however, aims for students not only to participate in the planning and practice of their curriculum, but to *take control* of their study and learning, where, as McKinney (2007) observes, it is necessary to be much more attentive not only to what we study (knowledge), or the skills we utilize to enhance knowledge learning. We need, McKinney argues, to hone in on *how we study and how we value what and how we study through shared dialogue*.

I believe there needs to be greater recognition of the socio-cultural benefits of integrated academic content and FAO language study that go beyond (1) nebulous calls for young adults in

Japan, or Holland for example, to be more internationally competitive or internationally-minded simply because they study English and can use the language in particular contexts of social life in future such as in the workplace or (2) using content FAO English study to enhance language learning development. Glaser (2005) argues that the concern is not only studying FAO English language. The main issue, he says, is developing plurilingualism in a geographical area (such as in Holland, Austria or in Japan) which helps people identify with “others” and helps break down barriers between peoples and cultures while at the same time maintaining a love of and for diversity.

4. Concluding remarks

Hambrick (1997) argues that teaching is not just transmitting knowledge or the technical cultivation of skills, whether doing or thinking skills. For Hambrick, to teach is to enter into a relationship, to orchestrate students’ knowledge, motivation, anxiety, energy, to understand the pulse in class, the emotional and intellectual ebbs and flows, how far students can stretch, how they can learn the most from each other. (1997: 243)

Many teachers, Barnes (1972: 115) contends, “treat language in class as if it were a skill to be learnt and then be available at some later time to be used whatever the context or situation,” a two-worlds ontology as Nainby et al. (2003) argue. At the heart of a DELCC-FAO pedagogy and learning is what Goldstein (1995: 473) terms, “a subtle but significant shift of attention from pre-determined curricular texts to the cultures of students.” Lessons and learning approached this way can be more meaningful, more powerful and more transformative for both teachers and students, says Goldstein, because they will come from the willingness and commitment of both parties to struggle through the difficult issues that teachers and students face in class, and what students and teachers struggle through outside school everyday. Concerns for social life, and conditions for interrogating teacher-student responsibilities to each other can be established in a university language education study where students and faculty become accountable to each other through a dialogic exchange of ideas, and through their language and communication thought, being, and practice(s) in class.

According to Koliba (2000), Berman (1997), and Ehman (1980), it is not so much the content of what is taught and studied as the way(s) in which teachers teach that determines either a closed or open classroom environment. Barnes believes, and I agree, that research into how classroom language and communication can possibly influence learning and/or student participation in class will never be totally convincing. Nevertheless, the relationships between language, content, communication, and learning in class are of vital practical importance. If teachers are more focused on what they say and how they talk to students, and how they explicitly or implicitly hope to encourage students to dialogue with each other, this heightened awareness could help teachers to

better understand the reciprocity between language use and content learning on the one hand, and both language use and content learning with active participation for a philosophy of thought and feeling, and for individual and social change and transformation.

There are a few universities in Japan that have fundamentally changed the way they conceive of and practice FAO English language study, according to Evans and Squires (2006: 15), who foresee that English for specific purposes (ESP) will become the norm not the exception in Japanese universities, replacing general liberal English curricula (EGP).

It remains to be seen, however, whether this fundamental curriculum shift will lead to institutionally supported integrated academic content and FAO English language university (ICLHE) study programs or courses. Should the shift away from EGP to ESP actually result in the planning and implementation of integrated academic content and FAO language, I hope there would be a reason to do so beyond simply effecting integration for instrumental purposes, where ESP, for example, becomes re-defined in terms of academic study rather than work-related purposes. This shift away from EGP towards ESP must take account of the wider educational benefits of effecting integration. A conception and practice of an integrated content and FAO language study within the framework of an empowering and civic-minded dialogic study will help substantiate the life-learning educational potential of ICLHE.

Not only is language learning enhanced with a deep content approach focusing on exploring and investigating one content area in depth over an extended period of time. Not only is it possible to think of a content area in different and exciting ways when done so in an FAO language. Utilizing an FAO language to engage in knowledge acquisition and (re)construction can enhance students' thought and feeling, the importance of valuing, and human development dispositions – for example, being inquisitive, guessing, sharing partial understandings. I believe, based on what I and students have experienced in our study together, that an explicit integration of FAO English language and academic sociology/social work content study, within a framework of an empowering democratic educating, can contribute in significant ways to human development in the classroom. Students learn not only to use language or learned information, but to engage with each other in this endeavor. An explicit integration of language and content in university, not only in the Japanese context, can be embedded within the framework of an empowering and democratic-enhancing citizenship education.

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Academic writing in the Spanish university context: changing the language, changing the paradigm*

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Abstract

A considerable body of published material is now available on teaching academic writing in English to non-natives, most of which has arisen out of the US university world. This paper explores the special features of teaching academic writing within the context of European bilingual degree programs, focusing on the bilingual degrees at the University of Navarra in Spain. Building on a previous study of students' experience of writing in the university, the author identifies the discrepancies between their current training and their mid- to long-term aspirations, and suggest ways in which their needs can be addressed more effectively through tailored academic writing courses. The distinctive features of teaching academic writing in the Spanish university context are emphasised, and particular attention is paid to the need to support students as they bridge the gap between two divergent academic traditions.

1. Introduction

Over the last thirty years, a considerable body of research has been published on teaching academic writing in English to non-native speakers (NNS). Much of this is situated in the US context, centring on groups of students from a wide variety of backgrounds who are adapting to the US university system. Not all this research is entirely relevant to the European bilingual university, for various reasons: European university students may have a shared background language and cultural tradition, they are not immersed in an English-language context outside the classroom, and the type of writing required may diverge considerably from the target genres needed to survive in US contexts.

The present paper focuses on the bilingual degrees at the University of Navarra in Spain. The paper builds on a previous study of students' experience of writing in the university, identify the discrepancies between their current training and their mid- to long-term aspirations, and suggest ways

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in which their needs can be addressed more effectively through tailored academic writing courses. The distinctive features of teaching academic writing in the Spanish university context are emphasised, and particular attention is paid to the need to support students as they bridge the gap between two divergent academic traditions.

2. The current situation

First, the question was posed as to what type of writing – in English or in Spanish – is currently required on the bilingual degree courses. A small-scale ethnographic research project had previously been carried out at the University to explore student writing within one bilingual programme (Economics and Business Management) using a multi-dimensional research design (Candlin & Plum, 1999; Lea & Street, 1999). This involved semi-structured questionnaires administered to 30 students, samples of student writing, interviews with a selection of university teachers involved in the programme, and a student focus group. The results were subjected to a theme analysis, which yielded the following overview of the situation.¹

The most striking finding was that over the entire degree course, including the subjects taught in English, these students only wrote summaries, commentaries and short answers. They did not write the type of “term paper” or “essay” that might be expected at a US or UK university, either in English or in Spanish. In broad terms, it seems that in this university tradition, writing is a neglected skill. In the present system, the backbone of university education is the “clase magistral” (formal lecture), and students may attend up to ten hours a day of such lectures. In contrast to their counterparts in English-speaking countries, Spanish students are not expected to read widely or research independently, and rarely compose anything longer than the “short answers” required in exams. Moreover, even within these limited parameters, the amount of attention paid to language and style was minimal. Teachers on the bilingual program did not correct the students’ English or take the quality of their written language into consideration when awarding grades.

As for students’ actual grasp on the area of academic writing, they showed a general awareness that they were poor writers, but were only dimly conscious of what the problems with their writing were. They tended to identify their difficulties in writing broadly as “language problems”, and did not show awareness of problems specific to writing, such as academic genres and formal register. They lacked appropriate strategies for approaching formal writing tasks, and had little grasp on the notion of writing as a medium of social communication. However, it must also be said that despite the relative unimportance of writing in their degree course, students felt disappointed that the bilingual programme afforded them little opportunity to improve their writing skills, and considered that help in this area would be useful.

3. A shifting paradigm

The situation sketched out in the foregoing section leaves teachers with a dilemma. On the one hand, the students' capacity to write effective academic English would seem by any broad definition to be inadequate. On the other hand, their poor writing skills were not causing them any particular problems other than a vague sensation of incompetence in the immediate situation of the bilingual degree programme.

To address the question as to what should be done, the scenario described above needs to be situated in a broader context. It is evidently necessary to respond to the increasing internationalisation of higher education, and the students' long-term needs and ambitions. Many students hope to participate in undergraduate exchange programmes or take postgraduate qualifications abroad, where higher standards of writing would be desirable. Moreover, within Spain there is also considerable pressure on postgraduate students and professors across most disciplines to write and publish papers, particularly in English.

However, probably the single most significant factor influencing university decision makers is the imminent change in the university curriculum in line with the Bologna agreement, and here, too, changes are afoot which may well foreground the role of writing in the university. In the Spanish context, the introduction of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) system, which quantifies study in terms of student work (1 ECTS credit is equivalent to 25 hours of study, only 8-10 of which may be accounted for by formal lectures, contrasting with the current system in which 1 credit is calculated as 10 hours of lectures), is likely to bring about a major shift in the paradigm underlying higher education. At present, universities are awaiting the implantation of the new system with some trepidation. It is by no means simple to negotiate a shift from clearly defined, class-centred learning traditionally assessed by examinations (consisting mainly of problem-solving, short-answers or multiple choice tests), to a more diffuse methodology according primacy to the individual learning process and fomenting learner autonomy, particularly when large, or sometimes massive, class sizes are taken into the equation.

4. Developing an academic writing course

Against this background, an academic writing course was designed to guide students into the expectations and rhetorical patterns of English-language academic writing. Although initial research (see section 2) had been carried out with students enrolled in the School of Economics, administrative pressures led to the pilot course being trialled with a mixed group of students from several bilingual degree programmes: economics, medicine, sciences and communication. Most of these students intended to apply for postgraduate studies abroad, and required help with their writing skills. As this course was introduced as part of a pilot scheme to implement the principles of the

ECTS system, it had fewer class hours than the usual courses (4.5 Spanish credits, but only 20 class hours instead of 45). Essential to the underlying rationale was the aim to promote learner autonomy, specifically in the form of independent research culminating in a full academic paper. The programme was trialled in 2005, and was received positively by both students and university decision-makers. In the second year in which the course was given (2006), an online platform was used to provide enhanced tutorial contact, promote written debate in discussion groups, and facilitate delivery of complementary materials. In what follows, for the sake of simplicity I shall describe the content of the 2005 course, and illustrate how this academic writing programme was able to dovetail with the content courses taught in English.

4.1. *Course outline*

In practical terms, the course consists of ten sessions in which students work through various scaffolded writing tasks. Beginning with personal journal writing and freewriting to foster fluency and clear expression (Leki, 1995; Hirose, 2001), the course guides students through a sequence of long writing tasks, namely, an essay, a report and a research paper, all of which are written outside the classroom. Backup for these tasks is provided in the form of a workbook which gives extensive language practice focusing on academic vocabulary, formal register and academic genres. In the classroom, students work on paragraph writing, data interpretation exercises, register transfer exercises and genre analysis tasks. Peer report forms are also used to raise students' consciousness about the social dimension of writing, and as a means of generating a positive atmosphere of collaboration in the classroom. The course is thus built on an understanding of writing as a medium of social communication in the specific context of academic disciplines. Linguistically, it draws detailed work on academic and research genres by Swales and Feak (Swales, 1990; Swales & Feak, 2000), in awareness of Bhatia's subtle and flexible understanding of genres as they function in the real world (Bhatia, 2004), while pedagogically, it draws heavily on both the Australian genre school (Kress, 1987; Martin 1993) and on the more open, interpretative approach of the New Rhetoric (Freedman, 1999; Coe, 2002).

4.2. *Writing research papers*

Since the culmination of the academic writing course is the research paper, it is worth examining the distinguishing features of this part of the course, and exploring how students have responded to it. The first hurdle to be overcome was the disparate nature of the students' background disciplines. As has been mentioned, for various structural reasons it was decided that the course should be opened up to students from several degree courses who intended to enrol for postgraduate degrees abroad, providing they had a C1 level of English (the usual entry level for bilingual degrees at the University

of Navarra). This created a more complex situation as far as the research paper was concerned, and it was necessary to maintain contact with lecturers from the different faculties in order to provide guidance regarding the content of the research papers.

The basic procedure for generating the research paper (RP) was as follows. First, students were introduced to the idea of the RP. They were encouraged to think about carrying out some empirical research connected with their own discipline, involving reading about a subject, designing a small-scale practical experiment or survey, carrying it out, then reporting and analysing the results and relating them to the literature. Since the basic notions of RP structure are common to most of the students' disciplines, students were introduced to the IMRAD structure (Introduction, Material and Method, Results and Discussion) (Swales, 1990), and then asked to carry out practical genre analysis tasks on papers from journals of their choice (Cargill, Cadman & McGowan, 2001) and compare their findings.² This phase of reading and genre analysis helped in two ways: it led the students into reading about an area that interested them, and it brought them face to face with the generic conventions of their own particular discipline.

Once this phase had been completed, most students were beginning to identify a field in which they could carry out a small-scale research project. At this stage, it was essential that the teacher should work with the student, and if possible with a subject specialist, in order to narrow down the topic to a project that could be achieved within the time limit. In fact, students themselves exercised considerable imagination at the ideas stage of their project. Examples worthy of mention are the medical student interested in psychology, who carried out a small-scale project to find out whether the colour of an insect or animal influenced people's perceptions of its dangerousness, a student of nutrition who researched into the eating habits of local teenagers, and an architecture student whose project focused on people's attitudes to new flexible building systems.

Since it was not feasible to ask students to conduct a full review of literature for the purposes of their RP, it was decided that students should carry out a mini-review, covering at least two different sources (journal articles, publicly available statistical information, reports published by official bodies, etc.). This provided the material they would later need to assemble a brief literature review, which either formed part of the introduction to their RP, or constituted an independent section. The same bibliography was also later used to enable them to write a fairly controlled discussion section, in which they related their own findings to those of others. Once the background exploratory reading had been completed, students were asked to produce a plan detailing their research proposal. Although some chose to perform small-scale experiments or carry out purely bibliographical research, most elected to conduct surveys, possibly because of the more manageable nature of survey data. In these cases, students were given information about how to write effective

questionnaires, and a session was organised in which they could trial their questionnaires with peers before finalising them.

This process of gathering, organising and analysing information which formed the central part of the research project was extremely fruitful, although it should be emphasised that an effective channel of communication has to be established between students and teachers if guidance and support is to be provided. On this point, it is useful to remember that this is precisely where the shift in education paradigm is at its most evident. In this phase of the process, students were not taking notes in a class in order to memorise them for an examination. Students were actually intensely involved in the process of generating new knowledge, and thereby learning to muster a complex range of skills. The education importance of this can scarcely be underestimated. As Williams (2001, p. 114) points out:

gathering information, finding a logical way to organise it, and then extracting some trend or generalisation [...] is not just an academic task [...] it is the process behind market research, business and political decision making, and much of social science research.

Once sufficient information has been collected and interpreted – preferably with support from subject teachers or some peer review, as well as tutorial support from the writing teacher – the final stage is for the student to write up the full RP. Students are told that the most usual method is for the material and methods and results sections (or equivalent) to be written first (Breeze, 2006). In addition to being a good antidote to writer's block, this helps students to clarify what they can justifiably claim on the basis of their results. Students are encouraged to write using models, and to bear in mind the different moves made in the course of these sections, particularly the need to highlight significant information. They are invited to refer back to the genre analysis tasks carried out as part of the preparation for the RP, and also work together in the classroom to carry out data interpretation and write-up exercises based on Swales and Feak (2004). Once the empirical sections of the RP have been drafted, they are given to the teacher for review, so that any problems can be addressed swiftly.

The technique of writing with models is then adapted to the more taxing requirements of the introduction and discussion. Swales' three-move model is explained for the introduction (Swales, 1990), and the two models proposed by Williams (Williams, 2006) are consulted for the discussion section, although it has to be emphasised that this section is more open to variation. Once more, the principles of genre pedagogy are applied, in that class time is devoted to the joint construction of RP introductions and discussions, before the students actually work independently to write their own sections (Cargill, Cadman & McGowan, 2001).

Again, as far as academic writing skills are concerned, the rhetorical steps taken by students who are writing up the findings of their RP and relating them to previous research are of necessity much more sophisticated than the “knowledge telling” skills which are the staple of so many classrooms (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1993). The RP affords learners ample opportunities to develop competence in different discourse functions, ranging from the most straightforward, such as the description of a process, to the “knowledge developing” language used in highlighting important results, hypothesising, arguing convincingly for or against a hypothesis, hedging, and so on. Although these skills were to some extent rehearsed in the essays written earlier on the course, when they were encountered again in the context of the RP, many issues surfaced pertaining to the need for scholarly rigour and the possible reactions of the scientific discourse community, which were hardly present in the context of the essays. The writing of the RP thus served as a form of apprenticeship for the world of authentic academic writing, within the controlled environment of the writing class. In general, the students appreciated the opportunity to undertake such a task, and responded extremely positively to the challenges it posed.

4.3. *Drawbacks and solutions*

Although this is to some extent a success story, it is not my present purpose to deny the obvious problems involved in undertaking such a course. To a great extent, the perceived success of the whole enterprise hinges on the choice of topic for the RP, and it is here that the teacher’s own resources are stretched to the limit – particularly when a single course contains a cross-section of students from different faculties. One possible solution to the lack of homogeneity in the group would be to choose a common generative theme for the students’ research (e.g. global warming, tourism, immigration). In this case, if immigration were chosen, students from medicine could research the medical issues connected with immigration, students from law could look at the legal status of immigrants, students from communication could research the way immigration issues are reported in the media, and so on. The course would thereby gain in homogeneity what it might lose in personal freedom, and the pressure on the teacher to embrace a range of different disciplines would be reduced. A further solution would be to increase the amount of support from content teachers. This should be possible in fully-fledged Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programmes with aspirations to genuine integration of language learning and content learning. In such a context, an academic writing course of this kind would be a perfect setting for content learning and truly academic language learning to intersect.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the present paper has argued that this type of academic writing course reinforces the “I” in CLIL, in that it bridges the gap between content learning and language learning, while bringing its own “added value” in the form of academic literacy skills that are currently not cultivated elsewhere on degree courses in the Spanish university context.

Notes

¹ For a more detailed description of this study, see: Breeze, R. (2006). Academic and professional writing in English. A study in the pedagogy of second language writing for Spanish university students. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Navarra, Pamplona.

² In most cases, variants on the IMRAD structure were found to be present, either explicitly (as in the empirical sciences) or as an underlying form of organization (as in Communication, where “method” tended to be represented as “design of study”, and the results were often subdivided into different aspects).

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The UCIS Programme: an example of CLIL in a British university*

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Abstract

The paper describes the UCIS Programme which provides international students with language and academic support 'wrapped round' undergraduate courses. It constitutes a type of content based language instruction (CBI) which is unusual in British higher education. The paper begins with an overview of English for Academic Purposes provision in British universities and classifies this according to type of CBI. The paper then describes the main features of the UCIS Programme, giving examples of specific courses, before discussing the factors that have made the programme possible, and the problems. It ends by looking at possibilities for future development.

1. Introduction

The one-year UCIS (Undergraduate Course for International Students) Programme at Bath Spa University provides academic and English language support for first-year undergraduates who are non-native speakers of English and constitutes a type of content-based language instruction (CBI) which is unusual in Higher Education in the UK. This paper will begin by providing an overview of CBI in relation to the teaching of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in British Higher Education before focussing on the UCIS Programme.

CBI, as reported in the literature, has become increasingly common in Higher Education since the 1980s and various approaches to CBI have been described: for example, adjunct and sheltered courses (Burger, Wesche & Migneron, 1997); theme-based, sheltered, adjunct and team-based adjunct courses and skills-based courses (Richards & Rogers, 2001); theme-based courses, adjunct/linked courses, sheltered subject-matter instruction and second language medium courses (Dueñas, 2003). This paper will use the categories distinguished by Dueñas, with the addition of Richards and Rogers' skills-based approach, to describe the types of English for Academic Purposes

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(EAP) programmes typically offered in British Higher Education. In theme-based courses language teaching is organized according to topics relating to a theme or to a particular academic subject area. These courses are taught by language specialists and the main aim is to develop students' language abilities rather than their subject knowledge. Adjunct or linked courses are designed to support a particular academic course. The adjunct course is taught by a language specialist who uses the content of the linked academic course to provide material for teaching language skills and study skills and the focus is on developing the students' language skills. In sheltered subject-matter instruction, a class of non-native speaker students is taught by a subject specialist who has an awareness of students' language abilities and can adjust her teaching to their level. The primary focus is on the academic subject. However, such courses may also be taught by a language teacher with the appropriate subject knowledge or team-taught by a subject specialist and a language specialist. Second language medium courses are any academic courses taken by students for whom the language of instruction is a second language. In these, language learning is incidental and occurs because of the context in which the student is (Dueñas, 2003). In a skills-based approach, a particular academic skill is linked to the content of an academic course taken by the students or the simulation of an academic course, but the focus is on the skill (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

EAP and British Higher Education

Foundation Courses These courses are mainly designed to prepare students for undergraduate study at British universities. They are one or two semesters long depending on the entry level of students. They typically offer a combination of skills-based CBI and theme-based CBI, especially in IELTS preparation classes, but often also sheltered subject matter instruction, as on specialized foundation courses, for example in Business Studies or Sociology (Gaffield-Vile, 1996).

University Preessional Courses These courses usually run for between one and three months, depending on the entry level of the students, and precede either an undergraduate or postgraduate programme. Their purpose is partly to develop the students' English language skills and study skills and, in some cases, improve their IELTS level. However, other important aims of these courses are to orientate students to life and study in the UK and, as in the case of the foundation courses, to bridge the academic culture gap that may exist between the students' academic experiences in their home countries and the academic culture of the UK (cf. Wilhelm (1997) who highlights the importance of this). Typically, preessional courses use a theme-based or skills-based approach or a combination of these.

Insessional English Universities in the UK generally offer some form of insessional language and academic support to students who are non-native speakers of English. This may take the form of drop-in, skills-based insessional classes in, for example, academic writing or academic speaking, exam preparation classes, essay-writing ‘clinics’ or one-to-one essay writing tutorials. However, some university departments may run adjunct programmes as part of their degree programmes (cf. Richards & Rogers, 2001: 217). In addition, many non-native speaker students in the UK experience what Dueñas (2003) terms second language medium courses, where the student’s focus is on the academic content and language learning is largely incidental and occurs because of the context. This is, however, often supplemented by the kinds of insessional support described above.

The UCIS Programme International students normally need a minimum of IELTS 6, or equivalent, for admission to undergraduate degree programmes at Bath Spa University, but students are accepted on to the UCIS programme with IELTS 5.5, or equivalent. The Programme consists of the first year of an undergraduate programme with very specific language and academic support ‘wrapped around’ first-year undergraduate lectures and seminars. Tutors on the Programme are ELT practitioners who also specialize in particular subjects. They attend lectures with students and teach lead-in and follow-up classes to support lectures and seminars. The focus of these classes is mastery of the subject matter and the acquisition of the academic skills required by the subject.

As a type of CBI, therefore, the UCIS Programme appears to be part-way between adjunct and sheltered courses. As on the adjunct courses at the University of Ottawa, described by Burger, Wesche and Migneron (1997), the UCIS students are taking the same classes as home students and UCIS tutors attend lectures alongside the students; however, as on the sheltered courses at the University of Ottawa (Burger et al., 1997), the primary focus of the support classes is on the subject, on the language and language skills needed for understanding the subject, for studying in English-medium classes with native-speaker students and for fulfilling the university’s assessment criteria. The UCIS students have to produce ‘real’ work for assessment on the same basis as the home students and cannot be burdened with extra work for the support classes. Moreover, unlike both the adjunct and sheltered courses at the University of Ottawa, the UCIS students come from several different language backgrounds and the UCIS tutors operate entirely in the target language. The students also come from different academic cultures and the UCIS programme also aims to help international students adjust to British academic culture.

This paper will give an overview of the support classes (called EAP – English for Academic Purposes – classes) before focussing on examples of support for particular modules. It will then

discuss tutors' experience of cooperation with academic colleagues, the influence UCIS students have had on module content and student outcomes.

2. The structure of the UCIS Programme

The UCIS Programme has been running at Bath Spa University (BSU) since 1988 and was designed originally for Japanese Study Year Abroad students. It now caters for students who come mainly from East Asia and who take the Programme for a variety of reasons; the majority continue into the second year of the three-year undergraduate degree programme at Bath Spa University. Currently, the following subjects are supported by the Programme: Art, Business Management, Creative Studies in English, Cultural Studies, Dance, Education, Geography, Health Studies, Media Communication, Music, Psychology, Sociology, Study of Religions and Textile Design. The average number of students taking the UCIS Programme each year, over the last six years, is thirty-one.

The EAP classes

The UCIS Programme begins with a four-week preessional course which leads into induction week, the first week of the first semester. The focus of the preessional is to provide tuition in the academic skills required for undergraduate study in Britain, to begin the process of familiarizing students with British academic culture and to give students advice and guidance on choosing the appropriate modules for their projected degree programmes. Most UCIS students know which subject they would like to study before they arrive in the UK but not which specific modules. The preessional course therefore provides 'taster' sessions for different modules. These can lead to a student choosing a subject not previously encountered, for example Creative Studies in English.

Each first-year academic module at BSU has three contact hours a week, typically comprising a one-hour lecture and two-hour seminar. This is supported by three hours of EAP classes, typically a one-hour lead-in to the lecture and a two-hour follow-up. The main functions of the EAP classes are to provide clearer input and a 'safe' environment for practising seminar and workshop skills. The lead-in sessions focus on pre-teaching key concepts and lexis which will feature in the lecture (and therefore are a quasi-prelistening activity) and the follow-up sessions check understanding of the lecture, act as discussion forums and provide note-writing and summary-writing practice.

In the case of academic modules, students are given blank lecture summary sheets to complete after the lecture. These ask students to summarize the main points of the lecture, note down something new they have learned and something which connects with what they already know. They are also asked to write down any questions they have. In addition, students receive one-to-one tutorials to help with essay writing and seminar presentations. In these, students are guided through the planning, drafting and editing of drafts. Where fewer than three UCIS students wish to take a

module, the EAP support takes the form of a one-hour class each week and one-to-one essay writing tutorials. There is also a freestanding EAP module (three contact hours a week), which is open to all international students and non-native speaker home students with IELTS 5.5-6.

3. Examples of modules supported by the UCIS Programme

This section will give an example of a creative and academic subject supported by the Programme.

Creative Studies

The UCIS Programme supports two Creative Studies modules: *Writing Workshop* (Semester 1) and *Film Studies* (Semester 2). The *Writing Workshop* will be used as an example in this paper. The focus of the module is the student's development as a creative writer in English. Language and content are therefore inextricably linked. In the last two years the module has also been supported by parallel workshops and materials on the university intranet and all students are given training in using these. The assessment is by coursework: a 1,500 word folder of creative writing and a 1,500 word critical commentary on the creative writing folder.

Each week there is a one-hour plenary, which is usually a presentation of an aspect of creative writing by a professional writer, and a two-hour writing workshop. In the workshop a group of fifteen to twenty students work with a tutor, who is also usually a professional writer. There are directed workshop activities but students are expected to bring in their own writing for peer and tutor feedback.

The EAP support includes two hours of classes and one hour of one-to-one tutorials each week. Unlike academic modules, *Writing Workshop* is not knowledge-based and the focus of the plenary sessions is not on imparting knowledge, but on developing students' experience of creative writing. The UCIS tutor tries to liaise with the plenary presenter each week, but sometimes they are guest lecturers and this is not possible so the tutor prepares something on the same topic. If written extracts are to be used in the presentation the tutor will try to get these before the plenary and go through them with the students. The main focus of the support classes is, however, to build up students' confidence and provide practice opportunities so that students feel able to read out their work in a workshop and give and receive feedback. The EAP classes therefore function partly as parallel mini-writing workshops.

Like the home students, the UCIS students are also developing as creative writers in English; however, they have usually had little prior exposure to English literature and literary conventions. The tutor therefore does some additional content teaching to provide the necessary literary and cultural background, for example work on poetic structure, rhythm, metre and sound symbolism.

Each year there is a set text, which is a collection of current new British writing, and the EAP classes also spend time on reading and discussing poems and short stories from this.

UCIS students initially find the workshops daunting and, even after they get used to the mode of teaching, very challenging. However, it is also possible for students to publish their work on discussion boards on the intranet and receive feedback in this way and this has been an attractive option for UCIS students. Moreover, they usually find writing creatively in English to be a liberating and satisfying experience. For some students creative writing has also proved to be very therapeutic. From a pedagogic perspective the module is excellent for improving students' confidence as writers in English. The main problem for the tutor is treading the fine line between correcting grammar and vocabulary and changing content.

Psychology

The UCIS Programme currently supports two core modules in Semester 1 and two optional modules in Semester 2. The two core modules are *Introduction to Psychology 1* and *Introduction to Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology*. The optional modules offered are *Introduction to Psychology 2* and *Psychology in Childhood*. Assessment of the subject includes essays, group presentations, workbook tasks, seen and unseen examinations, and practical reports.

The psychology modules typically consist of a one-hour lecture and two-hour seminar per week. The EAP support includes a one-hour lead-in class, which prepares students for the lecture, focuses on difficult language and concepts, directs students to relevant reading material and aims to engage students and activate schemata. Students are given a handout prepared by the tutor and a summary sheet to complete after attending the lecture. The handout is based on the students' set reading texts for the week and lecture notes received from subject tutors or from 'Minerva', the University's Virtual Learning Environment. The two-hour follow-up class reviews the lecture, checking that the models and theories have been grasped and that notes are complete; draws attention to exophoric references made in the lecture; identifies different lecturing styles and highlights useful note-taking strategies.

The follow-up class also prepares students for the seminar by focussing on the set reading, any input or tests they will be given, and developing their ability to participate in seminars and integrate with other students (e.g. through cultural awareness activities, teaching strategies for interrupting politely, practice in giving opinions and presentations, in preparing questionnaires for research projects, and in sitting tests). The EAP classes tend to be fairly teacher-centred at the beginning of the semester as the EAP tutor prepares the ground by imparting key information, building trust and confidence and setting class guidelines and expectations. As students become more familiar with the structure of the class they may be called on to lead discussions, elaborate on

information given in the lecture, challenge assumptions and so on. Monitoring and review are ongoing and take place through informal question and answer sessions, quick gap-fill tests, team activities such as making spidergram posters, speed writing tasks and short presentations to the group.

When numbers on a particular module drop below three, support is offered via a one-hour class each week. As is the case with other modules, students also have regular tutorials to guide them through the planning and drafting stages for assignments. Work is checked with the student present so that he or she can ask questions, clarify meaning, discuss ideas with the tutor and learn why corrections or suggestions are being made. When this close academic partnership between student and tutor works well, the student feels relaxed with the tutor and the affective filter to learning is lowered.

The triangular relationship between EAP tutors, students and subject staff is critical and the EAP tutor is in regular contact with subject tutors to keep informed of lecture and seminar content, changes to the syllabus, assessment methods and so on. For some years the first three lectures in *Introduction to Psychology 1* provided students with background knowledge and acted as 'foundation' lectures. However, with an increasing number of home students taking psychology at 'A' level before coming to university, this background knowledge is now assumed. Moreover national curricula differ in content. Therefore the UCIS tutor may need to provide extra subject input in the lead-in and follow-up sessions.

4. Cooperation with subject staff and home students

Generally, academic staff are supportive of the Programme, particularly in areas which involve the study of other cultures, for example Study of Religions, International Education and Psychology. Staff in such areas regard the UCIS students both as an asset in terms of broadening the cultural experience of home students and as a useful teaching resource: for example, in Study of Religions when teaching Buddhism, in International Education when students are asked to compare educational experiences, and in Psychology when teaching about culture-bound syndromes.

In other subject areas, cooperation between academic staff and language tutors has been developed gradually. For example, in the case of Creative Writing the UCIS Programme has been supporting the programme for seventeen years; during this time the module has become more practice focussed and the attitudes of Creative Writing staff have become more positive. Now, most of the staff are professional writers rather than academics and they are able to appreciate the different qualities and experiences international students bring to Creative Writing.

In some subjects such as Music and Dance, which comparatively few UCIS students take, there can be difficulties because academic staff are less aware of the Programme and what it involves.

This can also be a problem with new modules with new staff and it may be difficult for UCIS tutors to obtain relevant materials before the lead-in classes. In addition, subject staff who are unfamiliar with the rationale for the UCIS Programme have expressed concerns about the high level of support. UCIS Programme staff, however, have been invited to run seminars for academic staff in different schools on the cultural background of Japanese and Chinese students and their academic experience in their home countries. These have provided good opportunities for sharing problems and solutions.

In seminars UCIS students are, generally, encouraged to sit with non-UCIS students so that they can work in discussion groups with them. For seminar presentations UCIS students are usually paired with home students. Home students often comment that they are impressed that international students are studying in a second language. Occasionally, there can be problems when a shy UCIS student is paired with a very confident home student or if there is a misunderstanding over meetings to plan presentations.

Home students may also resent the level of support given to UCIS students, and we have had instances where home students have asked if they can attend our support classes for specific modules. The high level of support given to UCIS students means that they have very full timetables and this, in turn, can make it difficult for them to socialise with home students, for example, going for a coffee after a lecture.

5. Impact of UCIS students on module content

The presence of the UCIS students has enabled us to set up an English for Academic Purposes module which is open to international and non-native speaker home students with an IELTS score of 5.5-6, or equivalent.

UCIS students have also influenced the development of some subject areas: for example, in Study of Religions, the development of an advanced level module in Japanese religions and an emphasis on Taiwanese, Korean and Japanese perspectives in the teaching of Buddhism. Education has developed modules in International Education, such as Education in the Pacific Rim. In Creative Studies in English, Japanese UCIS students have impacted to the extent that the *haiku* is now a common feature of first-year writing workshops. Moreover, Creative Studies and Cultural Studies staff have supervised independent studies by Chinese and Japanese students on Chinese and Japanese themes.

6. UCIS student outcomes

UCIS students take the UCIS Programme for a variety of reasons. Some take it as a Study Year Abroad during their undergraduate programme at their home university; some take it as a foundation

course and apply through UCAS (the Universities and Colleges Admission Service) to another university during the Programme, if BSU does not offer the degree programme they wish to take; some take it as a pre-master's course and some, out of general interest and a desire to improve their English in an academic context. However, the majority, around fifty-five per cent of UCIS students on average, continue into the second year of the degree programme at BSU after passing the first year. Optional in-session essay-writing tutorials are provided during the second and third years for this group of students.

The Programme has never been formally evaluated but is judged on the success of the students who take it. Most students begin the one-year UCIS Programme with IELTS 5.5; however, by the end of the Programme they are able to study independently in the second year of their undergraduate course with only optional in-session EAP support.

7. Conclusion

The UCIS Programme is possible because BSU is a comparatively small university (about 5,000 students); it offers courses mainly in the arts, social sciences, education and humanities and UCIS tutors have been able to build up relationships with subject tutors and acquire knowledge and experience in particular subjects.

The cooperation of subject staff is partly motivated by a desire for internationalization, particularly in terms of broadening the cultural experience of home students, but also by more pragmatic considerations. Having UCIS and other non-European students in an academic department is likely to increase the score for Student Support and Guidance awarded by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA). Moreover, whereas the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), in conjunction with the universities, puts a limit on the number of home and EU students, there is no government cap on the number of international students. International students, therefore, make it possible for departments to increase their student numbers and expand. UCIS students, who come with full academic and language support *not* provided by the department concerned but by the UCIS Programme, are, therefore, seen as an asset. The other main reason why the Programme is possible is the specialization of EAP tutors in particular academic areas, which are matched to tutors' academic backgrounds and personal interests. Tutors gradually accumulate expertise in these areas and build relationships with colleagues in the relevant departments. Continuity of staffing is consequently a vital factor for the success of the UCIS Programme.

However, with the increase in range of subjects supported by the Programme the timetabling of support classes has become more difficult and more expensive. Moreover, the Programme is very labour intensive and in order to make it cost effective the fees have to be comparatively high. This, coupled with the problem of marketing a Programme which is unique in the UK, as explained earlier,

has led to a recent downturn in numbers. We are, therefore, currently trying to develop a way of retaining the unique CBI aspect of the Programme, but extending it to all first-year international students at the University.

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Part 3: Realizing Specific Language

Analyzing recommendations for future research: An investigation into a hybrid sub-genre*

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Abstract

In an EAP course conducted at tertiary level, it is important to teach second language learners how to write research reports and dissertations, and as such, it would be necessary to prepare relevant teaching materials based on an analysis of authentic disciplinary discourse related to academic research. Using a corpus of Discussion sections obtained from authentic management research articles published in international refereed journals, this study aims to find out how 'recommending further research', an important rhetorical move in research papers, is realized using a wide array of linguistic choices. The results of this investigation have interesting pedagogical applications as they can be employed to teach second language learners how to present their recommendations for further research by (1) employing logical shifts between research limitations and recommendations for future studies, and (2) using relevant rhetorical and linguistic choices to achieve their overt and/or covert communicative intentions.

1. Introduction

Teaching second language learners how to read and write research reports or dissertations often constitutes an essential part of a programme in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at tertiary level. In South East Asia, in particular, large numbers of undergraduate and postgraduate students need to present their research reports in English. Teaching these tertiary students how to read and report findings may therefore be an important task to accomplish in an EAP programme. In various academic fields, however, research reports often exhibit significant inter-disciplinary differences, especially in the aspect of linguistic choices, which may include the use of specific vocabulary items and sentence structures. Corpus-based research has also indicated that substantial cross-disciplinary and sub-disciplinary variations can be found in academic discourse (Hyland, 2002; Harwood and Hadley, 2004). Given such variations, lecturers guiding EAP students may have to (1) consider how content of a research report is generally presented in an academic discipline by investigating the communicative functions of related rhetorical segments (i.e., parts of a text analysed in terms of the

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writer's communicative intentions or purposes), and (2) highlight the salient linguistic choices that are commonly employed to accomplish the functions (Lim, 2004; 2006a; 2006b). More importantly, as students need to be able to read and interpret academic texts related to their own domain and pick up the important elements in an academic paper (van Leeuwen, 2003), relevant preparatory and parallel language support courses have to be designed to help university students who encounter difficulties in learning a conceptually and linguistically unfamiliar subject in their respective fields of specialisation (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson, 2003). These courses are vital in that the writing of research reports, in particular, often involves sufficient comprehension of new concepts, knowledge of the expectations of the research community concerned, and mastery of linguistic resources pertaining to the academic discipline.

With regard to the aforementioned needs, past studies that thoroughly investigated the linkages between communicative functions and their associated linguistic choices were relatively scant in comparison to those focusing on merely rhetorical moves or mainly linguistic choices. The lack of detailed investigations into linguistic choices is more noticeable in relation to the Discussion section of a research report or journal paper. Whilst it is widely known that Swales (1990; 2004) conducted an in-depth study of the Introduction sections of research papers, paying close attention to both rhetorical moves and linguistic choices, other studies focused on specific aspects of linguistic usage. Much of Hyland's (e.g., 1998) research focused on hedging devices in the Discussion section whereas other studies (e.g., Holmes, 1997; Yang & Allison, 2003) mainly dealt with rhetorical moves without discussing their linguistic choices in detail. Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988), for instance, studied the rhetorical moves of the Discussion section pertaining to drainage and irrigation without highlighting the linguistic choices in each move. Likewise, some subsequent studies on the Results and/or Discussion sections (Brett, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Williams, 1999; Yang & Allison, 2003) focused on the rhetorical categories without associating them with linguistic features. While most of the investigations mentioned above did not look at the salient linguistic features of rhetorical segments, several other studies (Nwogu, 1997; Posteguillo, 1999) covered all the four major sections of research papers (i.e., Introduction, Method/s, Results, and Discussion sections) and mentioned some linguistic features associated with each rhetorical move only in passing. In relation to this, the researcher's experience in teaching novice writers appears to suggest that the small number of examples given in a guidebook (e.g., Weissberg & Buker, 1990) may not provide sufficient guidance to second language learners who have yet to attain a competence level that enables them to write text segments which accomplish a particular rhetorical function in a research report. Adequate examples need to be given to illustrate to novice writers (1) the ways in which a rhetorical move is linked to other moves, and (2) how a move is realized linguistically in different ways. As such, an in-depth investigation into the rhetorical functions of a move and its associated linguistic characteristics is

pivotal in helping learners acquire the language skills needed to comprehend and write a particular text segment.

Motivated by such a concern, this study focuses on investigating an important rhetorical move, namely ‘recommending future research’ in the Discussion sections of management research articles (RAs). The RAs were selected in this study for several reasons. Firstly, management RAs constitute an important hybrid sub-genre of research papers, as they incorporate features which can be found in different academic disciplines such as psychology, education and sociology (Lim, 2006b). This means that the findings on the rhetorical move concerned may provide useful information on how teaching materials can be prepared to guide learners in writing recommendations for future research. Secondly, even though the Discussion sections of research papers have been studied in some past studies (e.g., Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Holmes, 1997; Yang & Allison, 2003), they were related to drainage and irrigation, history, political science, sociology, and applied linguistics. Management is notably a field in which rhetorical moves of the Discussion section have yet to be investigated in detail. Thirdly, even though certain moves, such as ‘recommendation’ (which may be a recommendation for future research or practical application/s), have been found to be a principal communicative category in the Discussion sections of RAs in the aforementioned fields, a thorough study of recommendations for future research has not been conducted thus far. This is especially so if we consider the various possible linguistic resources that can be possibly employed to accomplish the communicative functions involved.

Given the scope of this study, two specific objectives have been set, and they are given as follows:

- (1) to find out the possible ways in which management research reporters recommend future research in Discussion/Conclusion sections;
- (2) to identify the possible and salient linguistic resources that are frequently employed by management research reporters to recommend future research.

2. Research Methods

Given the objectives mentioned above, a set of basic guiding principles were used to select 20 Discussion sections from two internationally reputed journals in business management, namely *Academy of Management Journal (AMJ)* and *Journal of Management (JM)*. It has to be acknowledged here that both journals consisted of preeminently hypothesis-testing papers based on quantitative research rather than theory-generating studies. The journals were selected for their clear and consistent editorial formats. A total of 20 articles were selected randomly from past issues published over a period of seven years from 1994 to 2000. The investigation focused on merely the Discussion section of each article so as to identify the ways in which recommendations for future research were made.

Attempts were specifically made to differentiate recommendations for future research from those for practical applications as they were considered as different rhetorical categories, even though they had been regarded collectively as “deductions from the research” (Yang & Allison, 2003: 376).

In an attempt to avert biases in the sampling procedure and to obtain sufficient data in the sample to be analysed, accessibility and representativity of the articles were also taken into account. With respect to accessibility, electronic versions of the journals can be accessed at the University of Malaya and the Science University of Malaysia whereas their hard copies are also available at the Library of the National University of Singapore. In terms of representativity, the sample of 20 articles was collected using a random-stratified technique so as to indicate a higher degree of representativity and objectivity. Ten issues from each journal were chosen in order to ensure a higher degree of generality across the different subject areas in management. In the selection of Discussion sections, attempts were made to ensure that the corpus would exhibit a wide range of linguistic choices used by writers from different academic institutions.

Each Discussion/Conclusion section was first divided into different rhetorical categories suggested by previous researchers (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Holmes, 1997; Yang & Allison, 2003). Specific attempts were made to distinguish recommendations for future research from those made for practical applications in management. Attention was subsequently focused on the extent to which recommendations for future research are related to other moves in terms of communicative functions. Occurrences of the move were then marked in each text so that the frequency of each rhetorical category could be calculated. Typographical features and linguistic features found in the texts were employed to determine the boundaries between rhetorical categories (Mauranen, 1993; Connor, Davis & Rycker, 1995; Connor & Mauranen, 1999). Four specialist informants, who were experienced writers of management research papers, were consulted to validate the functional labels used to describe the steps in this rhetorical move. The informants were considered academic specialists who had the qualification, knowledge and competence in providing reliable feedback on research articles as they had their papers published in refereed journals, including *Management Analyst*, *Business Analyst*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, *International Human Resource Management Journal*, and *Malaysian Management Review*.

After the rhetorical category was identified and analysed in terms of its semantic functions, linguistic choices used to perform the functions were analysed. The analysis of salient linguistic choices was done on the basis of linguistic descriptions given by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985), and Greenbaum and Quirk (1992), particularly in areas pertaining to sentence/clause structures and lexical usage. Specific attention was paid to clause elements (i.e., subjects, verbs, objects, complements, and adverbials), and the use of a variety of phrases (e.g.,

noun/verb/adjective/prepositional phrases) employed in the realization of the communicative functions of the move.

3. Results and Discussion

'Recommendation/s for future research', which is at times referred to as 'implications for future research' in management research RAs, normally appears after 'indicating significance of the study'. (In the management articles collected, recommendations for future research are occasionally presented under the heading 'implications for future research', thus showing that 'recommendations' and 'implications' are used interchangeably at times in the field concerned.) Writers generally specify the strengths and limitations of a study before indicating what further research needs to be conducted on the basis of the significance of the study being reported. To be specific, recommendations for future research are given when writers find that (1) further studies involving a larger sample are necessary, (2) certain neglected aspects or variables are to be focused on in future studies, (3) a more precise method of data collection or measurement is deemed necessary, or (4) a replication or an extension of the study is warranted.

Recommending Future Research

Before reporting on the rhetorical functions and linguistic features of this step, it is necessary to point out here that 'recommending future research' constitutes a major step that occurs in 95% (19 out of 20) of the Discussion sections in the present corpus. Such a finding is supported by the feedback provided by all the four specialist informants who considered recommendations for future research as a relevant and necessary portion of the Discussion section. While one of the informants stated that such recommendations might be short and brief, another informant highlighted them as one of the most vital segments in the final section of a management research article. Typical examples of this step are presented as follows:

- (1) **A general implication of this research** is that **management scholars and researchers need to adopt** a contingency perspective when considering the relative merits of emergent versus planned strategies. (RA 8: 202)
- (2) **This study raises further questions**, providing impetus for inquiry by researchers and practitioners. **Longitudinal research is needed** to separate age and cohort effects. **It would be useful** to have multiple measures of pay at different times based on both objective and self-report data. Comparisons of supervisory performance ratings with performance and pay data gathered from a variety of sources **might be used** to separate unfair bias in pay rates from differences based on job performance. In addition, samples of managerial and professional employees **should be tested to extend the generalizability of our findings**... Within an organization, **such analysis may prompt deeper study**. (RA 12: 876)

- (3) Since we captured a limited number of those dimensions, the current research could be extended by including a multidimensional measure of risk. Furthermore, the performance differences we reported for variations in risk and incentive pay are made with the usual caveat of “all else equal.” The low R^2 s for these equations may also signal that researchers need to understand more fully what other factors may have a bearing on the causes and consequences of incentive pay. Again, we believe this means extending current compensation theories to take account of other dimensions of risk and other elements of the employment relationship. In addition, these low R^2 s may have resulted from the fact that we did not deal directly with either low-risk firms or small firms. Risk may affect such organizations differently... (RA 14: 293)

The instances given above show that recommendations for future research may be expressed with varied sentence beginnings and with *suggestion indicators* placed in different positions of a sentence. For instance, the implications may begin with a noun phrase referring to the future research itself (e.g., ‘Longitudinal research’) or even the research being reported (e.g., ‘this study’, ‘the current research’). Alternatively, an implication may start with some reference to a design employed in the current study (e.g., ‘The low R^2 s for these equations’), or a method or strategy suggested for further investigation (e.g., ‘Comparisons of supervisory performance ratings with performance...’, etc.). In order to find out the extent to which various patterns are pedagogically useful, it would be essential to analyse the various possible patterns of sentences used in indicating implications for future research.

First, an implication for future studies may begin with the subject referring to future research itself, instances of which can be found in 50% of the research articles. Those sentences that employ sentence-initial adverbials are listed in Table 1 which shows the possible clause elements of each sentence.

The examples illustrate that the sentence-initial adverbials used to introduce the recommendations may often be in the form of conjuncts, particularly *concessive*, *summative* or *additive conjuncts* (e.g., ‘However’, ‘Nevertheless’, ‘Given these findings’, ‘As before’, ‘first’, ‘second’, etc.) used to link a recommendation to (1) a set of main findings presented previously, or (2) another recommendation for future research which has been mentioned earlier on. A *content disjunct* (e.g., ‘Clearly’) may also be employed to express a certain degree of the truth of the conviction as an appeal to a general perception of the recommendation. [Note: Quirk et al. (1985) consider ‘clearly’, used in sentence-initial position, as a *content disjunct*.] A related structure which might be of greater pedagogical significance is the SPA/O/C structure (that involves no sentence-initial conjuncts) as shown in Table 2.

Table 1: ASPA/O/C structures with subjects referring to organisations or managers

Adverbial	Subject	Predicator	Adverbial(s)//Object/ Complement
However,	<u>more research</u> , with <u>larger and more diverse samples</u>	<u>is needed</u>	<u>to further consider how</u> different <u>HR systems</u> affect different <u>groups of potential job applicants</u> . (RA 1: 547)
Clearly,	<u>additional research</u>	<u>is needed</u>	<u>to test</u> these possible explanations. (RA 4: 855)
Given these findings,	<u>future research</u>	<u>should attempt</u>	<u>to unravel</u> the <u>domain</u> of absence propensity construct. (RA 4: 859)
As before,	<u>much more research</u>	<u>is needed</u>	in this <u>area</u> . (RA 5: 536)
First,	<u>research</u>	<u>should examine</u>	the <u>relationship</u> between <u>strategy formation pattern</u> and <u>strategic intent</u> (Hamel & Prahalad, 1989). (RA 8: 204)
Second,	<u>research</u>	<u>should address</u>	the <u>issue</u> of how much direction, and what level of detail, managers must provide in emergent strategy firms before such a strategy formation approach will generally become <u>viable</u> . (RA 8: 204)
Nevertheless,	<u>future work</u>	<u>should include</u>	longitudinal data to obtain a <u>more direct assessment</u> of causality. (RA 18: 172)

The instances in Tables 1 and 2 indicate that the subject usually consists of a noun phrase referring to possible future research (e.g., ‘more research with larger and more diverse samples’, ‘additional research’, ‘future research’, ‘much more research’, ‘further experimental studies’, ‘Further work replicating and extending these results’, etc.). These subjects appear to be ensued by predicators, each of which contains a *suggestion indicator* in the form of a verb phrase indicating (1) a relatively stronger obligation (e.g., ‘should consider’, ‘should assess’, etc.), or (2) a considerably higher degree of necessity (e.g., ‘is needed’, ‘is suggested’, ‘will be needed’, ‘could benefit’, etc.). In some cases, however, *suggestion indicators* may be present in phrasal combinations (e.g., ‘further consider’, ‘seems warranted’, etc.) that signal that future studies are being recommended. What follows the *suggestion indicator* is a complement/adverbial/object which states the exact aspect or variable that writers consider to be worthy of further research.

Table 2: SPA/O/C structures with subjects referring to organisations or managers

Subject	Predicator	Adverbial(s)//Object/ Complement
<u>Future studies</u>	<u>should consider</u>	focusing <u>more intensively</u> on particularly <u>HR systems</u> , and <u>more precise</u> measurement of <u>individual differences</u> . (RA 1: 548)
<u>Future research</u>	<u>should assess</u>	this <u>conjecture</u> . (RA 4: 855)
<u>Further work replicating and extending these results</u> , necessarily utilizing within-subject designs,	<u>seems</u>	<u>warranted</u> . (RA 4: 857)
<u>Further experimental studies</u>	<u>should examine</u>	the <u>relative efficacy</u> of such systems. (RA 6: 558)
<u>Longitudinal research</u>	<u>will be needed</u>	<u>to evaluate</u> the relative merits of explanations using economic or ecological rationality versus those based on myth creation, superstitious learning, and opportunism. (RA 7: 164)
<u>Future research along these lines</u>	<u>should focus</u>	on at least four <u>issues</u> ... (RA 8: 204)
<u>Further research</u>	<u>is needed</u>	<u>to determine</u> the <u>degree</u> to which these results hold in other settings. (RA 9: 890)
<u>Future research</u>	<u>could benefit</u>	not only from articulating but also from measuring the processes or intervening variables... (RA 18: 173)
<u>Future research</u>	<u>should explore</u>	those <u>relationships</u> at the firm level. (RA 18: 173)
<u>A further line of analysis</u>	<u>is suggested</u>	by the consistent role that sogo shoshas and keiretsus occupied in these foreign investment decisions. (RA 20: 119)

To be specific, the element that follows the *suggestion indicator* is normally (1) an infinitive verb phrase (e.g., ‘to consider’, ‘to test’, ‘to unravel’, ‘to evaluate’, ‘to determine’, ‘to separate’, etc.), and (2) a noun phrase denoting variables to be studied (e.g., ‘HR systems’, ‘groups of potential job applicants’, ‘strategy formation pattern’, ‘strategy intent’, ‘relative efficacy of such systems’, ‘age and cohort effects’, etc.). The structure is characterised by nouns denoting an aspect (e.g., ‘area’, ‘domain’, etc.) or those connoting hypothesised variations and relationships (e.g., ‘issue’, ‘degree’, ‘conjecture’, ‘relationship’, etc.)

While the recommendations for future research mentioned above are usually expressed with the subjects referring to future research in sentence-initial positions, the following sentences exemplify cases where researchers expected in recommended studies are given the focus and fronted as sentence-initial subjects:

- (1) **Organisations scholars may also find it fruitful to examine** additional factors that moderate the impact of mood on withdrawal... (RA 9: 892)
- (2) **Researchers might gain a better understanding** of the conditions under which agency predictions hold **by examining** different sources of risk and how they are related to compensation decisions. (RA 14: 292)
- (3) We could not investigate specific behavioural or attitudinal side effects of increased use of incentive pay in higher-risk situations... **Researchers need to know more** about **how** employees process risk in the employment relationship, especially risk related to pay and **other general employment factors** such as layoffs, losses of promotion, and unfavourable assignments. (RA 14: 293)
- (4) **Researchers need to know more** about risk-long-term incentives – organizational performance relationships. (RA 14: 294)

The instances given above show that the sentence-initial subjects referring to researchers are ensued by predicators that function as *suggestion indicators* (e.g., ‘might again’, ‘need to know’) indicating future needs. What appears to be of pedagogical importance is that sentences written with fronted subjects referring to researchers always have comparative adjectives in *post-predictor* positions (as in ‘a **better** understanding of the conditions’, ‘**more** about how employees process risk in the employment relationship’, etc.).

While the aforementioned instances illustrate that signals of recommendations are usually found in predicators functioning as *suggestion indicators*, such signals may be present in the introductory superordinate clauses as well. These instances, found in 7 of the 20 Discussion sections, are illustrated in Table 3 in which the introductory superordinate clauses are separated from the subordinate clauses containing the implications for future research.

Table 3 illustrates that before indicating the aspects to be considered in future research or the significance of a possible future study, an introductory superordinate clause is used. This is another way in which a *suggestion indicator* (e.g., ‘is possible’, ‘may be necessary’, ‘would be useful’, ‘is my hope’) is included in the introductory clause to signal that a recommendation is given. This introductory clause consists of a pronoun ‘it’ that refers cataphorically to a subordinate nominal clause (which may be an infinitive or a *that*-clause (e.g., ‘**to include** subjective data, collected from interviews or questionnaires, in order to explore the risk propensity issue more fully’, ‘**that** different results would have been obtained for other types of positions’, etc.). (The pronoun ‘it’ is not a *prop word* or an *empty subject* as it has cataphoric reference in the contexts concerned.) This is due to the fact that the subsequent adjectival complement (e.g., ‘possible’, ‘necessary’, ‘useful’, ‘fruitful’, etc.) actually describes the recommendation for future research given in the ensuing nominal *that*-clause. Similarly, the nominal complement (e.g., ‘my hope’) in the introductory superordinate clause also refers to the subsequent nominal *that*-clause (i.e., ‘that the findings and the approach adopted here will prove useful... constitutes human competence at work’).

Table 3: Introductory and subordinate clauses used in indicating implications for future research

Introductory Superordinate Clause/s	Subordinate Infinitive or Nominal <i>That</i> -Clause(s)/Subsequent Main Clause in Coordination
Nevertheless, <u>it is possible</u>	[<u>that different results would have been obtained</u> for other types of positions] and [<u>future research should consider</u> the effects of system information on <u>other samples of job seekers</u>]. (RA 1: 547)
<u>It may be necessary in the future</u>	[<u>to include</u> subjective data, collected from interviews or questionnaires], [<u>in order to explore</u> the risk propensity issue more fully]. (RA 5: 537)
<u>It would be useful</u> , we think,	for subsequent researchers [<u>to begin to look in finer detail</u> at the processes behind managerial favouritism.] (RA 7: 164)
<u>It might be fruitful</u>	[<u>to extend the conceptualisation</u> of returns beyond pay and <u>toward an investigation of the different collections of returns</u> – including cash pay, benefits, and perks – necessary to motivate actions in higher- and lower-risk situations]. (RA 14: 293)
<u>It is my hope</u>	[that <u>the findings and the approach adopted here will prove useful</u> as an interpretative understanding of and method for, identifying and describing what constitutes human competence at work]. (RA 16: 23)
<u>It is important</u>	for researchers [<u>to explore</u> the boundary conditions of their models, particularly in relation to task differences.] (RA 17: 145)

While the instances given in Table 3 illustrate that indications of implications for future research may begin with an introductory superordinate clause containing a *suggestion indicator*, the following examples show that such implications are indicated with reference to the current study (or findings) stated as the subject in sentence-initial positions. These instances, found in four research articles, are listed in Table 4.

The examples presented above display that the subject of a sentence used in specifying a recommendation is a noun phrase denoting the study on the whole (e.g., ‘this study’, ‘the current research’, ‘The present study’, etc.) or a particular result obtained in the study being reported. More interestingly, most of the predicators which follow the subjects are transitive verb phrases (e.g., ‘suggest’, ‘raises’, ‘could be extended’, ‘may also signal’, etc.), all of which function as suggestion indicators in these sentences that begin with some reference to the current studies (regardless of whether they are in the active or passive forms). These active transitive verbs are ensued by objects (e.g., ‘the importance of including a measure of human resource system as a moderator’, ‘that researchers need to understand more fully what other factors may have a bearing on the causes and consequences of incentive pay’, etc.) which specify the exact implications for future studies.

Table 4: Structures with subjects referring to current studies or findings in the recommendations for future research

Adverbial	Subject	Predicator (with optional adverbial/s in some cases)	Object/ Adverbial(s)
Finally,	<u>this study</u>	also raises (Note: The word 'also' is an optional adverbial) some	<u>additional questions</u> that <u>need to be considered</u> . (RA 1: 549)
In addition,	the significant differences found between the two types of systems in both turnover and the relationship between turnover and manufacturing performance	suggest	the <u>importance</u> of including a measure of human resource system as a moderator <u>in future research</u> on the consequences of turnover. (RA 11: 683)
Since we captured limited number of those dimensions,	<u>the current research</u>	<u>could be extended</u>	by including a multidimensional measure of risk. (RA 14: 293)
-	The low R ² s for these equations	<u>may also signal</u>	that <u>researchers need to understand more fully</u> what other factors <u>may have</u> a bearing on the causes and consequences of incentive pay. (RA 14: 293)

In comparison to the sentences in which implications for future research are indicated in the post-predicator positions, recommendations may be fronted, nominalised and used as the subjects of clauses as shown in Tables 5 and 6. Table 5, in particular, shows that the subject of a sentence may be preceded by an adverbial that specifies the situation in which a recommendation for future research is made or a brief reason for making the recommendation.

Before analysing the salient features characterising the aforementioned recommendations, it would be useful to first consider a set of structures which do not involve the use of sentence-initial adverbials. While Table 5 shows a set of structures that involve no sentence-initial adverbials, both Tables 5 and 6 indicate that the subject of a clause that recommends future research is a noun phrase indicating a suggested investigation (e.g., 'further examination along these lines', 'samples of managerial and professional employees', 'Comparisons of supervisory performance ratings with performance and pay data gathered from a variety of sources', 'Studies employing short-duration

absence measures', etc.). The subject in each case may contain a headnoun that normally refers to either the sample or a step taken in the study concerned as shown in Table 6.

Table 5: ASPA/O/C structures with the subjects referring to current studies or findings in the recommendations for future research

Adverbial(s)	Subject (with optional adverbial/s in some cases)	Predicator (with optional adverbial/s in some cases)	Adverbial(s) (Adjunct or participial adverbial clause)/ Object/Complement
In addition, because the methods and sources applicants use likely affect information quality,	<u>further examination along these lines</u>	<u>also may prove</u>	to be <u>useful avenues for future research</u> . (RA 1: 549)
In addition,	<u>samples</u> of managerial and professional employees	<u>should be tested</u>	<u>to extend the generalizability of our findings...</u> (RA 12: 876)
Within an organization, [Since almost all of our industry indicator variables were highly significant], and [since there were both positive and negative coefficients],	such analysis <u>closer examination</u> of industry effects	<u>may prompt seems</u>	<u>deeper study</u> . (RA 12: 876) <u>warranted</u> . (RA 14: 294)
In future studies,	<u>other variables</u> , such as external relationships and individual contributions,	<u>should be examined</u>	as potential mediators. (RA 17: 144)

When a recommended action or suggested future occurrence is nominalised (i.e., expressed in the form of a noun phrase or a noun/nominal clause) and fronted as the subject of a sentence (instead of being expressed in a post-predicator position), the predicator used may function as a *suggestion indicator* (e.g., 'may prove', 'should be tested', 'may prompt', 'might be used' 'would do well', 'will undoubtedly lead to', 'might lend') that indicates probability. Alternatively, the predicator may be used as a *stative link verb* which, when used in the present simple and in combination with the subsequent complement, functions as a *suggestion indicator* (e.g., 'seems warranted', 'constitute an area that is in great need of study', 'is worthy of examination in future research', etc.).

Table 6: SPA/O/C structures with the subjects referring to current studies or findings in the recommendations for future research

Subject (with optional adverbial/s in some cases)	Predicator (with optional adverbial/s in some cases)	Adverbial(s) (Adjunct or participial adverbial clause)/ Object/Complement
Comparisons of supervisory performance ratings with performance and pay data gathered from a variety of sources	<u>might be used</u>	to separate unfair bias in pay rates from differences based on job performance. (RA 12: 876)
Studies employing short-duration absence measures	<u>would do well</u>	to acknowledge the temporal limits of such data. (RA 13: 1630)
The relationships among long-term incentive pay, risk, and firm performance	<u>constitute</u>	an area that is <u>in great need of study</u> . (RA 14: 294)
Exploring these intermediate links explicitly	<u>will undoubtedly lead to</u>	<u>further refinements and insights</u> into the process by which combinations of human resource activities can lead to competitive advantages for firms. (RA 11: 684)
The possibility of such multiple, and typically unmeasured, causes for pay differences	<u>is</u>	<u>worthy of examination in future research</u> . (RA 12: 876)
<u>A wider sample</u> of organizations, including both small and large firms,	<u>might lend</u>	<u>additional information</u> for answering this question... (RA 14: 294)

The examples given show that indications of recommendations for further research often do not appear on their own without being supported by some evaluative comments from the writers themselves. Such recommendations are frequently mentioned along with indications of the prominence of the recommendations. Instances of these text segments are presented as follows:

- (1) In addition, because the methods and sources applicants use likely affect information quality, further examination along these lines also may prove to be useful avenues for future research. That is which sources convey what type of system information, and how do source characteristics affect the believability of the information? (RA 1: 549)
- (2) This assumption itself may be investigated in future research. What happens, for example, when the firm's environment, and hence its strategy, changes dramatically? Do recently deregulated firms significantly alter their compensation arrangements in a re-negotiation of this optimal level of risk taking? These questions provide fertile territory for researchers interested in executive compensation. (RA 5: 537)
- (3) The most central implication emerging from the findings of this study is that conceptions, rather than attributes, should be the point of departure both for efforts to identify and describe competence and for efforts to develop competence... (RA 16: 23)
- (4) If high risk firms actually provide lower levels of compensation to their executives, then those firms should confront difficulties in attracting and retaining the best executive talent. This will be an important arena for future research. (RA 5: 535)
- (5) A second interesting direction for future research would be to examine how the relationship between affect states and withdrawal behaviour differs from the relationship between trait affectivity and withdrawal behaviour. (RA 9: 891)

- (6) Since we captured a limited number of those dimensions, the current research could be extended by including a multidimensional measure of risk... Low-risk firms may have greater flexibility in how they can structure compensation contracts. These too are important areas for further research. (RA 14: 293)
- (7) We could not investigate specific behavioural or attitudinal side effects of increased use of incentive pay in higher-risk situations, but these are important issues for future study... (RA 14: 293)

The examples given above show that when a recommendation is given or when some dubious questions are raised, it is often preceded or ensued by a statement claiming the significance of the recommendation or an aspect which warrants attention. For instance, adjectives denoting the overall significance of the implications are used in noun phrases (e.g., ‘useful avenues for future research’, ‘fertile territory for researchers’, ‘the most central implication’, ‘A second interesting direction for future research’, ‘important issues for future study’, etc.) to draw the attention of the presumed readership to the significant potential of future research arenas. Another feature characterising this move has also been exemplified in the first two instances which show that implications of future research are often prompted by interrogative sentences (e.g., ‘That is which sources convey what type of system information, and how do source characteristics affect the believability of the information?’, ‘What happens, for example, when the firm’s environment, and hence its strategy, changes dramatically?’, ‘Do recently deregulated firms significantly alter their compensation arrangements in a re-negotiation of this optimal level of risk taking?’) in which both *Wh-* questions and *yes-no* questions are presented to raise doubts and focus readers’ attention on the aspects which deserve attention or the research areas that warrant further investigation.

Given the importance of indicating implications for future research, it would now be interesting to investigate the possible ways in which writers shift from other moves to such implications. On the whole, it may be said that a shift from the strength of a study to an implication for future research is relatively rare but worth taking note of. An example of such a shift is illustrated in Figure 1.

The instance given shows that the usefulness of the interpretative theory and method developed in the study is highlighted as a strength in a preceding move, but subsequently an interrogative sentence is employed to indicate the possibility of generalizing the theory and method to other types of work. Based on such a possibility, it is then suggested that further empirical research be conducted to study the possibilities of the generalisation which has been brought into focus. In comparison, shifts from limitations of the research to implications for possible future studies are relatively prevalent as they can be found in 45% (9/20) of the management research articles in the present corpus. On the whole, there are three types of limitations from which shifts to implications for future research can be accomplished. The first way has to do with a shift from a sample limitation to an implication for future research, which is illustrated in Figure 2.

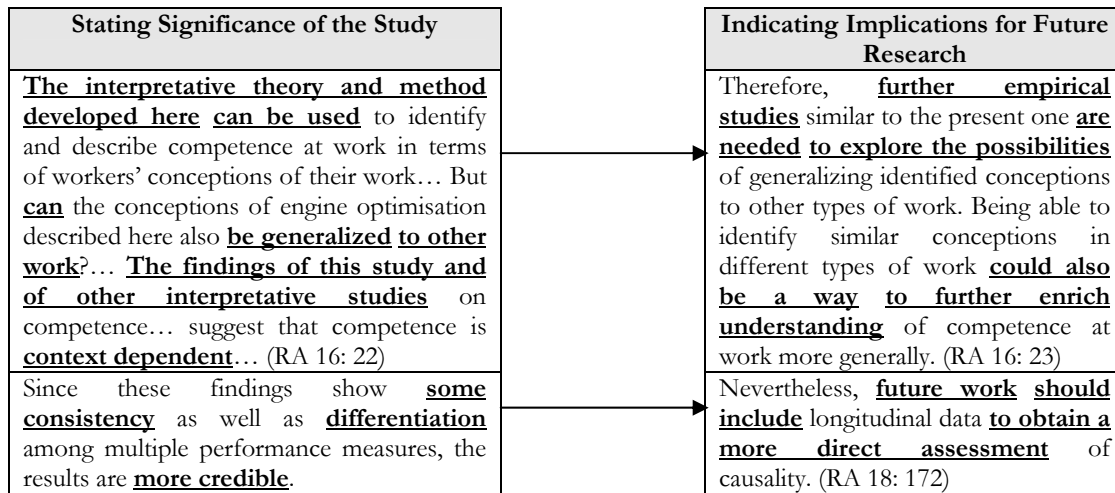


Figure 1: Shifts from strengths in previous research to recommendations for future research

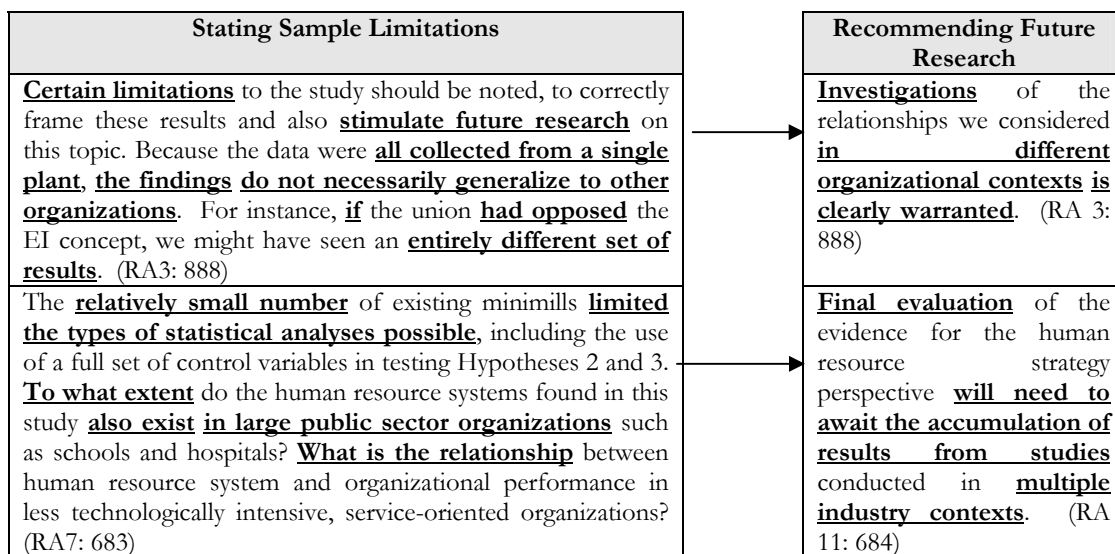


Figure 2: Shifts from sample limitations to recommendations for future research

The examples presented above show that when limitations are deemed to be related to a small sample size, particularly as the data were collected from one single organisation or a small number of organizations, the generalisability of the results is doubted. However, a sample limitation is subsequently followed by an indication that further investigation into the relationships between the same variables may be conducted in other different organizational contexts. In other words, when limitations are attributable to small samples, writers may attempt to play down the negative effect of

the limitations by giving recommendations that future research can be conducted in multiple contexts to further increase the acceptability of their findings.

The second type of limitations, from which shifts to implications for future research have been identified, are associated with the method used for conducting the research being reported. Figure 3 shows instances of a shift from a limitation in the current research method to an implication for improving the method in a future study.

The example in RA 1 shows that when the length of the survey affected the quality of the research and the coefficients understated the individual effects between individual and system characteristics, it is immediately recommended that a more precise method be used to measure individual differences. Similarly, when it has been acknowledged in RA 16 that the instrument employed was restricted to merely interviews, it is ensued by an implication that alternative methods of obtaining data would furnish more information on the concept of competence. The second example (from RA 16) above, however, shows that the researcher only considers the instrument used as his “primary tool” (RA 16: 23) without distinctly acknowledging the limitation using linguistic choices that explicitly indicate some shortcomings. The subsequent sentence suggests that further research be conducted using other methods of collecting data. This is therefore an example which illustrates that the communicative intention of the writer may not always be evident or overt at the sentence level, and an analysis of sentence relations at the discourse level, particularly through the use of a move analysis, may reveal more precisely the overall communicative intentions conveyed in the text segments.

Stating Limitation/s in Research Methods	Giving Implications for Improved Methods
<u>The length of the survey</u> also <u>limited the quality</u> of individual information which we collected... The attenuated, <u>though acceptable</u> , internal consistency coefficients we observed likely <u>understated the interaction effects between individual and system characteristics</u> because scale reliability <u>limits the explanatory power</u> of the scales. (RA1: 548)	<u>Future studies should consider focusing more intensively</u> on particularly HR systems, and <u>more precise</u> measurement of <u>individual differences</u> . (RA 1: 548)
<u>My primary tool</u> for obtaining empirical data about workers' conceptions of work was <u>interviews based on observations of work</u> . (RA12: 23)	<u>However, other ways of obtaining data</u> , such as making video recordings and collecting what workers say when they “talk aloud” about what they are doing when they accomplish their work, <u>would provide more detail</u> about how competence is constituted through workers' ways of conceiving of their work... (RA 16: 23)

Figure 3: Shifts from limitations in research method/s to implications for improved method/s (suggested for the future)

The third type of limitations, from which shifts to implications for future research have been found, are related to the relationships between certain variables in the research being reported. Figure 4 shows that writers would first acknowledge that they did not measure certain variables, which are usually independent variables (e.g., ‘education’ and ‘tenure’ in RA 12, and ‘education and functional expertise’ in RA 14).

Alternatively, they may admit that they have failed to discover the relationship between certain variables, such as (1) the link between ‘compensation decisions’ and ‘firm performance’, and (2) the connection between ‘formal education’, ‘length of work experience’ and ‘the three conceptions’ in RA 16. The effects of mentioning such limitations are then offset by statements highlighting the importance of including certain variables and studying the links between the variables. It is therefore understandable that apart from containing *suggestion indicators*, a recommendation for future research that ensues a limitation pertaining to missing variables is also characterized by clauses denoting the significance of future studies (e.g., ‘it would be useful to replicate our study’, ‘studying the relationship... is important’, ‘other sources... may provide insights’, etc.). In brief, it may be said that even though acknowledgement of the limitations of a study may constitute a disclaimer that enhances the credibility of the writers, it may still cast certain doubts with regard to the acceptability of the research sample or methods. The doubts associated with research limitations may, to a large extent, be minimised when writers promptly indicate the recommendations for future research by highlighting the importance of enlarging the sample, improving on the method, incorporating certain variables and studying the relationships between some dependent and missing independent variables.

Stating Limitations in Studying Variables	Giving Implications for Further Research
<u>Another limitation</u> of this research is that we <u>did not directly measure</u> any learning, political or attribution processes. (RA 7: 164)	This <u>can best be studied</u> by in-depth analyses of a few organizations. (RA 7: 164)
<u>However</u> , we <u>did not have an ability measure</u> other than self-reported language ability. <u>It is possible that variance</u> in performance not attributable to education, tenure and language ability <u>may partially explain pay differences</u> . (RA8: 876)	Thus, <u>it would be useful</u> to <u>replicate our study</u> with <u>the addition of a measure</u> of ability and objective performance data. (RA 12: 876)
Our human capital controls <u>did not account for factors</u> such as <u>education or functional expertise</u> , and these <u>might be important omissions</u> . There are <u>possible concerns about missing variables</u> , although we attempt to mitigate such concerns by	Even so, <u>we believe</u> that <u>compensation researchers must begin to address the links</u> between compensation decisions and firm outcomes, even in the face of potential statistical issues. Since firms make most decisions about compensation systems with the intention of influencing future employee

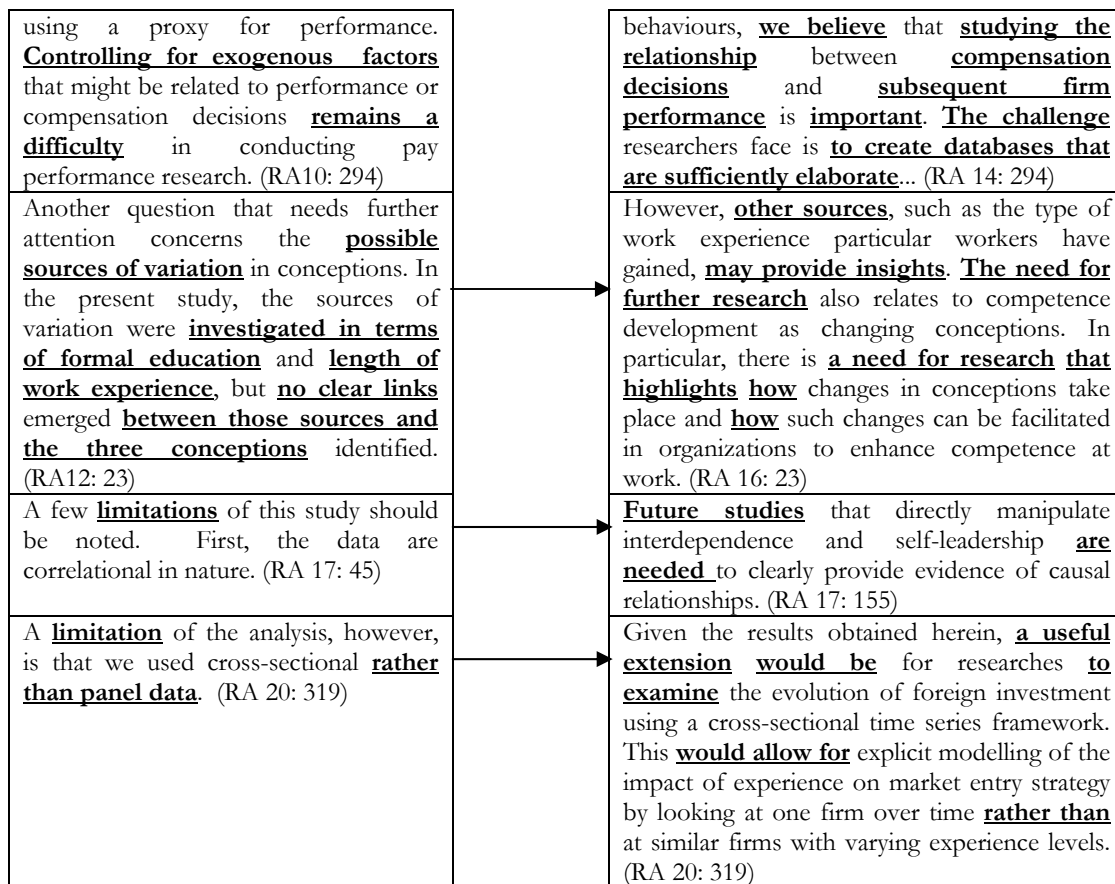


Figure 4: Shifts from limitations in studying variables to implications for further research

Justifying Recommendations for Future Studies

Justifying recommendations for future studies have been identified in 65% (13 out of 20) of the RAs. Semantically, it is a step that frequently uses past research findings to suggest that a recommended action or future study is warranted. In justifying recommendations, writers also claim that their recommendations are consistent with past research findings. This step, however, should be distinguished from ‘indicating consistency between previous and current findings’ which is used to show that the findings already reported in the Results sections are consistent with past research results. In contrast, recommendations for future research are employed to indicate that the suggestions (not the new findings) are consistent with prior research results.

In terms of positions of occurrence, justifications are closely associated with the recommendations for management research. Even though justifications may precede recommendations occasionally, a justification generally follows a recommendation for future research and should be considered as another step within the same rhetorical move. Apart from descriptions of undesirable situations, positive situations are depicted using predicator-object combinations

carrying positive connotations (e.g., ‘could help to uncover whether the performance levels... are reflective of substantive differences’, ‘may help establish the robustness of our findings’, ‘would continue to achieve optimisation’, ‘reinforce and refine a certain competence’, ‘enables a fuller description of competence’, ‘achieving the desired competence development’, etc.). Such combinations that highlight the positive aspects of recommended actions also appear in the justifications of recommendations for future research. Examples of such justifications are shown in Figure 5 below.

More interestingly, verb-pronoun-adjective combinations (e.g., ‘makes it possible’) are used to introduce verb-object structures which indicate that some uncertainties observed in current research may be resolved in recommended future studies (e.g., ‘makes it possible to capture how certain attributes are delimited as essential and organized into a distinctive structure of competence at work’, ‘makes it possible to actively promote the development of a particular conception of work and its specific attributes’, etc.). An interesting feature is that some of the justifications are based on some past findings which suggest the importance of considering a particular aspect overlooked in the study. The reference to past research in highlighting the necessity of conducting a particular type of research can be best illustrated only if we consider the entire clauses citing past research findings [e.g., ‘Miller and Bromiley (1990) and Collins and Ruefli (1994) reviewed a number of different measurements of risk that may be worthy of exploration’, ‘Previous research on the subject frequently has neglected the combined effects of these variables’, ‘Such an investigation would also test Auster’s (1989) suggestion’, ‘much as Fisman (2000) focused on... rent seeking in Indonesia’, etc.]. These clauses are used to support the writers’ claim that the suggested studies would provide essential information which has yet to be obtained in prior and current research. These justifications of future studies, which highlight lacunas in research (including the research being reported), are comparable to the indications of gaps in past research in the Introduction section as described by Swales (1990; 2004), the difference being that the research gaps in these cases occur in the final Discussion section and can be filled only in future research instead of the study being reported.

Recommending Future Research		Justifying Recommendations
Third, the linkage between the strategy formation process and strategy content <u>should be further explored</u> . (RA 8: 204)	→	This type of research <u>could help to uncover</u> whether the performance levels associated with different strategy formation patterns are reflective of substantive differences in how those firms choose to compete. (RA 8: 204)
<u>A more refined treatment</u> of the present study’s moderating variable, job satisfaction, <u>is also possible</u> ... (RA 9: 892)	→	Subsequent studies <u>may find significant differences</u> between the moderating effects of satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with supervision... (RA 9: 892)
Additionally, this study <u>points to the need to consider</u> the roles of both mood and job satisfaction when developing and testing theories about individual withdrawal behaviours. (RA 9: 892)	→	<u>Previous research</u> on the subject frequently <u>has neglected</u> the combined effects of these variables. (RA 9: 892)

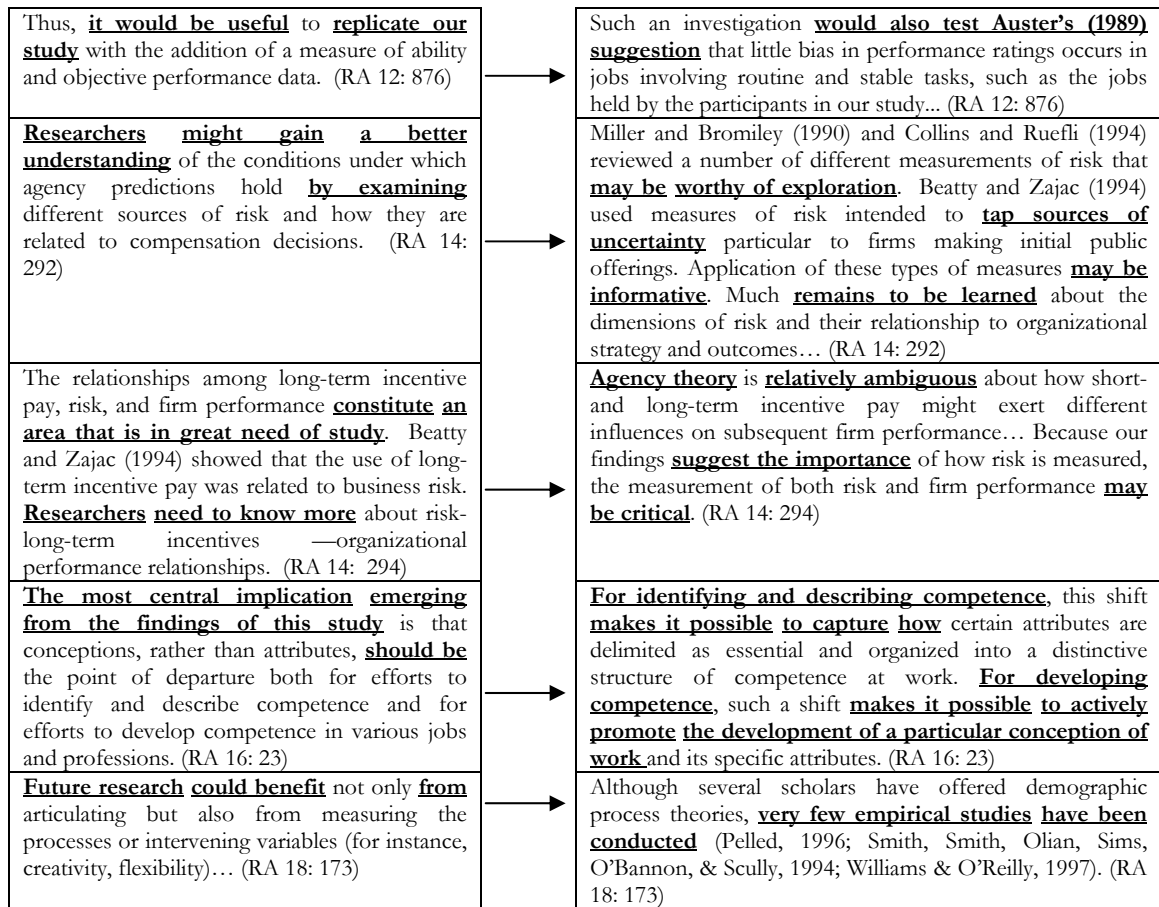


Figure 5: Shifts from recommendations for future research to justifications of the recommendations

4. Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications

The research reported above has yielded interesting findings on (1) the possible ways in which management research reporters recommend future studies in the final section/s of research papers, and (2) the useful linguistic mechanisms employed to achieve their communicative intentions in the sub-genre. So far as rhetorical functions are concerned, recommendations for future research are generally an essential component in the Discussion sections of management research reports as they are included in 95% of the RAs in this sample. Their importance can be partly attributed to (1) their function in downplaying the shortcomings of the research being reported, and (2) the associated justifications which are vital in the writers' attempt to minimise potential negative criticisms.

The results have indicated that writers normally specify their recommendations for future research after they have acknowledged the limitations of their studies. The positioning of the categories show that one of the communicative intentions of the writers might be to end their research reports on a relatively positive note. It is understandable that under certain circumstances,

limitations of a study need to be specified if writers expect the reliability of their findings to be held in high regard. Notwithstanding the necessity to acknowledge the methodological shortcomings of the research being reported, writers would normally avoid ending their papers with merely research limitations that may project an overall negative image about the study being reported. A possible explanation is that an end focus given to limitations may augment the probability of the research paper being rejected for publication, as the audience may consist of expert reviewers who may question the writers' negligence or failure in overcoming limitations, which in their view, could have been averted if extra caution had been exercised in designing the research.

As limitations in management research generally involve the questionable size of a sample collected and the lack of attention paid to certain selected variables, it is not surprising that writers usually suggest that a larger sample be employed in future research or that some variables be given the main focus in further studies. Such suggestions normally entail a discussion on a more precise method for collecting data in subsequent suggested research.

While the aforementioned strategy may be introduced to novice writers who have yet to familiarise themselves with the ways of ending a research report, the linguistic mechanisms employed in recommending further research definitely warrant greater attention. This means that it is necessary to conduct further research into linguistic realizations of rhetorical moves (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 1994; Woodward-Kron, 2003) and find out how the use of such linguistic resources can be incorporated in teaching materials aimed at training learners to recognize and write recommendations for future research. Second language learners who are unfamiliar with the ways of expressing their intended meanings through sentence construction need to be guided to make such recommendations using different clause structures. The positioning of *suggestion indicators* in various parts of a sentence, for instance, should form a central component in teaching novice writers to make recommendations for future research. A common way to indicate a recommendation is to use a *suggestion indicator* after a nominative noun phrase (a noun phrase in the position of a sentence subject) and before stating the aspect or variable that merits further research.

Given the aforementioned findings, it is recommended that learners be introduced to a wide array of noun phrases denoting future research. In such exercises, texts containing the recommendations may be given to learners who can be asked to recognise and underline (1) the noun phrases denoting further research, and (2) *suggestion indicators*. Subsequently, novice writers may be encouraged to identify the aspects or variables which, as they suppose, should be investigated in greater detail. At an initial stage, learners may use infinitive procedural verbs in the sentence structures as illustrated in Tables 1 and 2 while filling in sentence elements containing the variables or areas which deserve in-depth or further research. At a later stage, they may be encouraged to employ other structures, involving references to (1) future researchers in sentence-initial positions and

comparative adjectives in *post-predicator* positions, or (2) the current study in sentence-initial positions ensued by *suggestion indicators*. As the use of introductory superordinate *it*-clauses and subordinate infinitive clauses (or *that*-clauses) are endemic in the sample analysed above, it is necessary to include the matching of these clauses as part of the training in writing implications or recommendations.

While the aforementioned structures are relatively manageable, learners may be introduced to more complex structures which are relatively harder to recognise and write at a later stage. These structures could include those illustrated in Table 6 where a relatively more explicit description of a suggested investigation is fronted and used as the sentence subject. When these basic structures have been introduced, it may be essential to incorporate the writing of evaluative comments that give positive overtones to the recommendations for future research. These statements claim the significance of the recommendation that warrants attention and they often comprise adjectives carrying positive connotations about the research being reported. A possible covert communicative intention might be to capture the attention of the presumed readership with regard to the significant potential of future research perspectives. Likewise, interrogative structures, as exemplified in this paper, may also be used to raise doubts and arouse readers' interest to conduct research in a suggested area.

Despite the importance of the linguistic resources used to achieve the communicative intentions given above, recommendations for future research need to be studied in relation to other rhetorical categories. EAP lecturers might find it necessary to enlighten learners on how writers can possibly shift from limitations of the current study being reported to implications for future studies, and how recommendations can be subsequently justified as a different step within the same move. For instance, novice writers might find it interesting to use statements suggesting the use of a larger sample to downplay the negative effects imposed by a restricted sample. Such a recommendation is relevant given that the generalisability of the results may be doubted by examiners or the academic audience especially when the data were collected from one single organisation or a small number of organizations.

In brief, the extent to which a research report is accepted by readers may hinge on the use of shifts between the right rhetorical categories and the employment of linguistic resources that express the thoroughness of the research, the caution exercised in conducting the study, and the relevance of the suggested investigation in comparison to (1) the gap left over by the study being reported, (2) the uncertainties that remain unresolved after the study, and/or (3) methodological shortcomings acknowledged by the writers concerned. The doubts associated with research limitations may, to a great extent, be minimised when writers highlight recommendations for future research by emphasising the importance of enlarging the sample and by suggesting some methodological modifications in further research, which generally involve a focus on some variables or their

relationships that have been overlooked in the current research being reported. In short, even though writers' communicative intentions may be overt when some *suggestion indicators* are used to explicitly state a recommendation, certain intentions may be covert. These intentions can be perceived more distinctly only when the positioning of rhetorical categories is studied and the linguistic choices used to accomplish them are analysed.

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An experiment in sheltered sociology at the university level*

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Abstract

This paper reports on an experiment in sheltered sociology at the tertiary level in which native English speakers and international students were each taught a complex theoretical lesson on Durkheim's theory of suicide using traditional lecture and questioning techniques vs. sheltered techniques. The paper focuses on three critical aspects of sheltered instruction: 1) the process of converting from a traditional lecture format to a sheltered format; 2) the process of collaboration between the content (sociology) instructor and the language instructor; and 3) the evaluation of sheltering's effectiveness. Included are a before and after (sheltering) lesson plan, sample material simplifications, and scripts depicting the sometimes intense negotiations between the content area and language specialists. The paper concludes with both descriptive and empirical data on the effectiveness of the sheltered lesson, based on a small pilot study and suggests that the common U.S. practice of preventing international students from taking credit-bearing courses before "passing" the TOEFL is unnecessary if content instructors use sheltered techniques.

1. Introduction

This paper reports on an experiment in sheltered sociology at the university level, drawing on Schneider and Friedenbergr (2002). The experiment aimed to determine whether language and content instruction could be successfully integrated for students who were both native and non-native speakers of the language of instruction, which was English. In our trial, native English speakers and international students were each taught complex theoretical lessons in sociology using

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traditional lecture and questioning techniques vs. sheltered techniques and then tested for retention and comprehension. In this report, we focus on three themes: 1) the process of collaboration between the content (sociology) specialist and the language specialist; 2) the process of converting from a traditional lecture format to a sheltered format; and 3) the evaluation of sheltering's effectiveness. To discuss these, we must first briefly discuss the practice of sheltered instruction in the USA.

Sheltered instruction

Sheltered instruction, also referred to as SDAIE (specially designed academic instruction in English), was developed about twenty-five years ago in the USA by linguists and educators who sought ways to integrate L2 learning theories and strategies with content instruction for secondary school ELs, in the absence of bilingual instruction. It uses simplified speech, graphic organizers (Parks & Black, 1992; Kagan, 2001), hands-on activities, cooperative learning, visual aids, demonstrations, hand movements, and reiteration to help students acquire both language and appropriate grade-level content simultaneously. Unlike content-based ESL, its goal in the USA is more the acquisition of content than the acquisition of language.

Perhaps because most university professors in the USA are generally unwilling to modify their instruction for students with special needs, sheltered instruction has been used only rarely in tertiary settings in North America.¹ One noted exception was an experiment conducted in Canada by Edwards et al. (1984) in which two groups of Anglophones were studied: one group took a psychology class in English along with a French language class and the other group took a sheltered psychology class in French. Results showed that the second group learned as much psychology as both the first group and a group of Francophones studying psychology (in French) and they learned more French than the first group who had taken a separate French language class. This suggests that sheltered instruction may be an effective way to integrate content and language in higher education.

2. Converting a traditional sociology lesson to a sheltered one

Since tertiary faculty (outside colleges of teacher education) are unaware of sheltering and normally have no formal pedagogical training,² and since sheltering specialists often lack the requisite substantive knowledge to shelter complex material, collaboration is mandatory.

Our approach involved five steps. First, the content specialist, Schneider, made available to the language specialist, Friedenberg, the unsheltered lectures and some supporting resources to acquaint her with the content. Then, Friedenberg proposed plans to make the material more comprehensible and discussed these with Schneider. In the third step, Friedenberg then modified the material by making the lectures linguistically simpler, developing supplemental learning activities

characteristic of sheltered instruction, and proposing a sheltered lesson plan. Then, we re-negotiated parts, as necessary, in order to implement the lessons in both a team-taught and a solo format; and finally, we evaluated the outcome collaboratively.

These steps required that Schneider become acquainted with sheltered techniques and that Friedenbergr become familiar with the material to be sheltered. Sheltering complex material requires that maximum clarity and simplicity be achieved while preserving the material's intellectual integrity. Rarely do content specialists concern themselves with distinguishing what students *absolutely must know* to understand their courses' contents.³ Helping the content specialist decide upon this is the most important task of the language specialist. In our experience, it leads to conflicts, since content specialists are loath to sacrifice, and often unable even to discern, elements of their presentations that students may find incomprehensible for largely linguistic reasons.

Consider the following discussions between us, which manifest Schneider's impatience in the face of Friedenbergr's efforts to achieve clarity and simplicity. The first occurred in the process of hashing out the definition of "theory":

- JF: Is it OK if I use the word "explanation" as a synonym for "theory?"
- MS: Not really. While "explanation" may be a part of the definition of "theory," a theory is defined as "a statement of relations among concepts from which explanations of concrete phenomena can be derived."
- JF: Well, that sounds too complex for my purposes.
- MS: (Exasperated) Look, this is a theory course for soc majors. They have to know the correct definition.
- JF: I understand that, but you've indicated to me that you remind them of this definition over and over again throughout the course of the semester and many of them still don't know what a theory is by the end of the course. So, why keep using the same words to define it?

The second occurred as we tried to define "empirical generalization":

- JF: Is this OK for a definition of "empirical generalization: "Tested generalization or regularity?"
- MS: No, empirical generalizations are derived from summing over concrete cases.
- JF: What's wrong with using "tested" instead of "summing over concrete cases?"
- MS: Because you need to distinguish a generalization based empirically on concrete cases from an evaluative generalization.
- JF: Give me an example of an evaluative generalization?
- MS: Suppose someone says, "Lying is always worse than telling the truth"?
- JF: Well, if you interview the people about their impression of the consequences of truth versus lying, isn't that concrete?
- MS: Yes, but that's generalizing about their responses on a survey -- not about the consequences of lying in the abstract.

- JF: But when I said "tested phenomena," wouldn't it be understood that they have to be concrete?
- MS: (Going back to the definition) Why not say "type of generalization or regularity derived from a summing of concrete cases"?
- JF: Well, can I change "concrete" to "actual"? And can I get rid of "summing"?
- MS: What's wrong with "concrete" or "summing"?
- JF: Well, it seems that actual cases have to be concrete and "summing" just doesn't seem to be necessary. How about "type of generalization or regularity based on actual cases?"
- MS: "Numerous actual cases."
- JF: Alright.

Multiple frustrations characterized our negotiations. Given language specialists' unfamiliarity with the content, which effectively places them in the position of students, how can they know when content specialists are needlessly fixated on precise wordings or on preserving complexity? Many potentially "dumb" questions must be asked -- and answered. At the same time, to proceed with clarifying and simplifying modifications, language instructors are forced to take an uncomfortably critical stance, often implying (as we've just seen) that content instructors had not previously been pedagogically effective. Being helpfully critical while being largely ignorant is taxing!

For their part, content instructors, under pressure to clarify and simplify, must be able to discern which modifications so denature the material as to destroy its value, and which do violence only to their impressions of what college teaching should be like. These impressions may cause them to recoil from sheltering techniques, which often seem more appropriate to primary or secondary educational levels than they do to tertiary. As will soon become evident, sheltering techniques involve a classroom experience rather different from what most of us anticipated university teaching to be. To the extent that a sophisticated classroom tone is bound up in professors' images of who they are, a lot of ego will be on the line. At the same time, a major strength of such collaborative efforts is that they force content instructors to clarify, in a way accessible to non-specialists, concepts that, in being previously taken for granted, have likely proven unclear to students as well. Thus content professors may be able to gain in measurable pedagogical effectiveness what they give up in tone and self-image.

The period of familiarization, then, aims at clarifying the material to be presented and requires that content and language instructors develop an adequate shared understanding of the content. Further problems of clarification are apt to occur as the language instructor develops the sheltered exercises, to which we now turn.

Assuming the two successfully work through the initial collaboration, they then work together to modify the lesson format. The examples that follow are based on a lesson about Durkheim's theory of suicide (see Schneider 2006: 206-16). The traditional lesson format consisted

of asking students to read a book chapter before class, using a Powerpoint accompanied lecture that reiterated material in the book chapter, and then allowing for questions at the end of the class period.

The modified lesson format (presented in Figure 1), which took about 25% longer to deliver to students, consisted of the students reading prior to class a linguistically simpler version of the book chapter and completing a homework sheet on it. The class itself began with an instructional game (in this case a word-find). Then, brief lectures accompanied by guided note pages that students filled out while they listened to the lecture were interspersed with graphic organizer activities designed to help the students process some of the technical terminology. This was followed by another instructional game (in this case a crossword puzzle) employing all the technical terms used in the lesson. We concluded the lesson itself with two hands-on activities, and then, for purposes of evaluation, employed a multiple-choice quiz.

Sheltered Classical Theory: Durkheim's Theory of Suicide	
Total class time = 60 minutes	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Give students sheltered lecture notes and assignment sheet before 2. Sheltered lesson: Team-taught by MS (content) and JF (language) 	
Minutes	Topic
(2-3)	Word find with prize (JF)
(7)	Lecturette/Questioning A. Intro to Suicide [psych. Causes] (MS) B. Social Conditions [integration, regulation] (JF)
(7-9)	Lecturette – Altruistic and Egoistic Suicide (MS)
(5-6)	Semantic Web Activity: Altruistic & Egoistic Suicide (JF)
(4)	Lecturette - Fatalistic and Anomic Suicide (MS)
(5)	Semantic Web Activity: Fatalistic & Anomic Suicide (JF)
(5)	Lecturette/Questioning/Discussion – Combining Graphs for Integration and Regulation (MS)
(5)	Suicide Crossword on overhead (MS)
(5)	Matched Pairing Activity – [match social condition with suicide types] (JF)
(5)	Prepare for quiz, private study (MS/JF)
(10)	Quiz

Figure 1: Modified lesson plan

Figure 2 below is an excerpt of the unmodified text that students had traditionally been asked to read before class, while Figure 3 illustrates the modified text that students in the sheltered experiment were asked to read before class, after which they were to complete the homework sheet presented in Figure 4.

He first asked whether suicides might be grouped together into types in terms of common social properties. For instance, military suicides generally occur in two sorts of circumstances. During warfare, some soldiers expose themselves to certain death in order to save their comrades, for instance when one throws himself on a grenade to protect his fellows. (There are numerous less dramatic examples of the same phenomenon.) In a quite different circumstance, more familiar in previous centuries than in our own, a soldier who has done something to dishonor himself or his regiment will be expected to compensate the group to which he belonged by killing himself.

In both cases, Durkheim noted, the soldier is sacrificing himself for the group, and Durkheim styled such suicides "altruistic." Another example would be a person who leaps into the water to save a drowning person without knowing how to swim--and drowns as a result.

Figure 2: Unmodified selection from book chapter.

Altruistic Suicide

Altruistic suicides occur when a person kills him or herself to benefit others. In order for altruistic suicide to take place, a person must be more socially integrated (connected) to a group than average.

Examples of altruistic suicides include:

- A soldier who throws himself on a grenade to save his comrades
- People from certain strong religious or cultural groups who kill themselves when they have embarrassed or dishonored their families.
- A person who jumps into water to save a drowning person without knowing how to swim – and drowns as a result.

Figure 3: Modified selection from book chapter

Read the chapter section on Durkheim's Theory of Suicide and complete this homework sheet. It is important that you read the essay and complete the homework sheet before the next class.

1. Statistically, which group (circle one for each):

- a. is more depressed? men or women ?
- b. has a higher rate of suicide? men or women ?
- c. is more depressed? educated or uneducated ?
- d. is more depressed? high income or low income ?
- e. has a higher rate of suicide? Whites or Blacks ?

2. What does the above (#1) information suggest about the relationship between depression and suicide? (Select one)

- a. Depression is the main cause for suicide.
- b. The relationship between depression and suicide is unclear.

3. Statistically, which groups commit suicide more (Circle one for each)?

- a. married people or single people ?
- b. civilians or military personnel ?
- c. free people or prisoners ?

4. Write a short description for each of the following expressions.

- a. altruistic suicide: _____
- b. egoistic suicide: _____
- c. social integration: _____

Figure 4: Homework assignment sheet

When students in the experimental sheltered group arrived in class, they were first given the word-find (Figure 5) to complete. Students then listened to brief portions of the lecture while

completing guided notes (Figure 6). Between these portions, we involved students in graphic organizer activities on a chalkboard, asking them collectively to generate a definition, characteristics, examples, and antonyms for critical technical terms (Figure 7). The process of hearing portions of lectures while completing guided notes and doing graphic organizer activities was used serially as we worked through the content of the lecture.

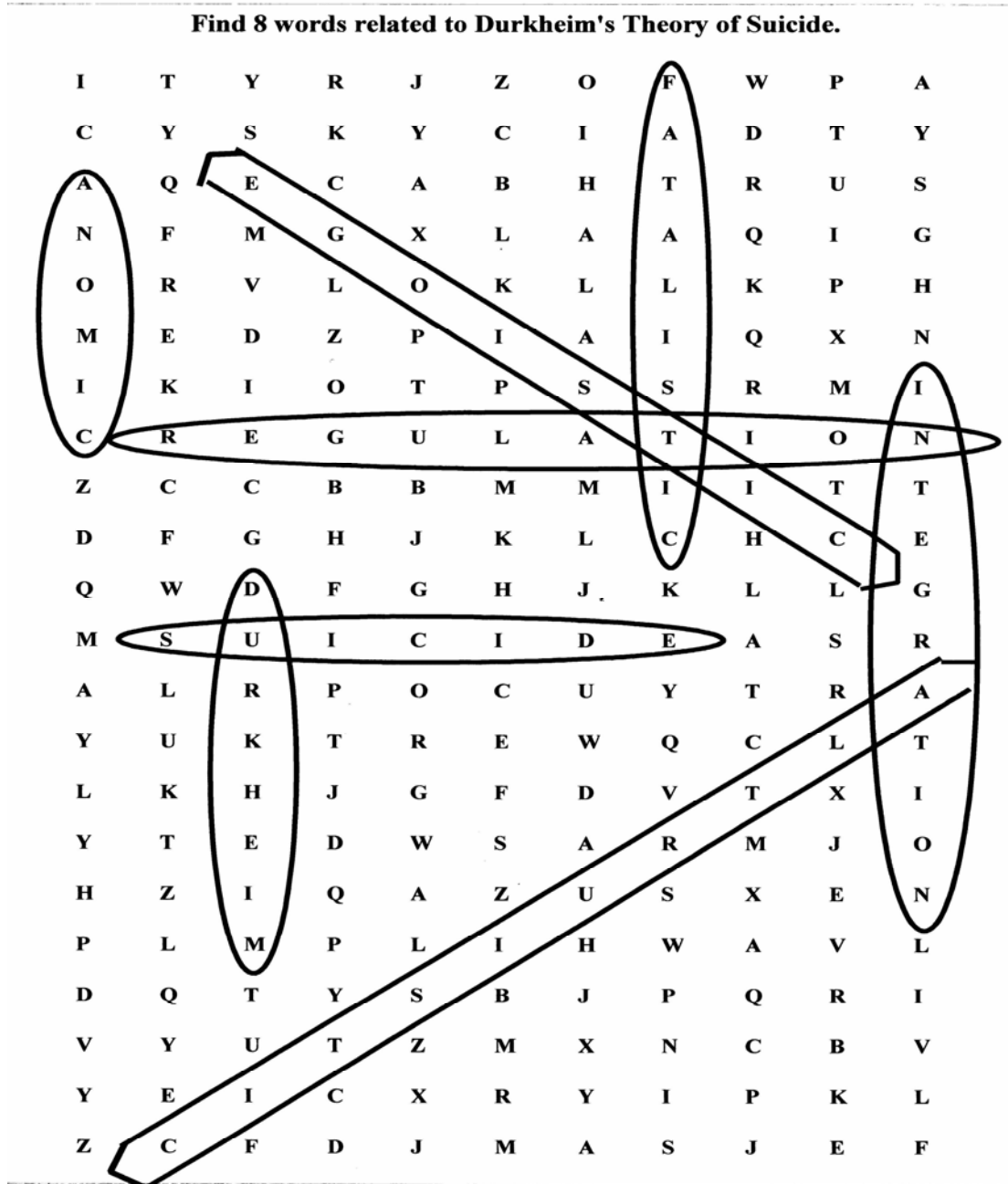


Figure 5: Wordfind

Durkheim's Explanation of Suicide

Durkheim, a sociologist, says that suicide is caused by a _____ of internal (psychological) factors and two external (sociological) conditions: _____ and _____.

Durkheim identifies 4 types of suicide, based on different _____. The first two types (altruistic and egoistic) are caused by too _____ or too _____ integration. The second two types (fatalistic and anomic) are caused by too much or too little _____.

1. Altruistic Suicide

Altruistic suicides occur when a person kills him or herself to benefit _____. In order for altruistic suicide to take place/ a person must be more socially _____ to a group than average.

Examples of altruistic suicides might include:

- A _____ who throws himself on a grenade to save his comrades
- People from certain strong religious or cultural _____ who kill themselves when they have behaved badly and embarrass or dishonor their families.
- A person who jumps into water to _____ a drowning person without knowing how to swim, and drowns as a result.

Figure 6. Guided notes

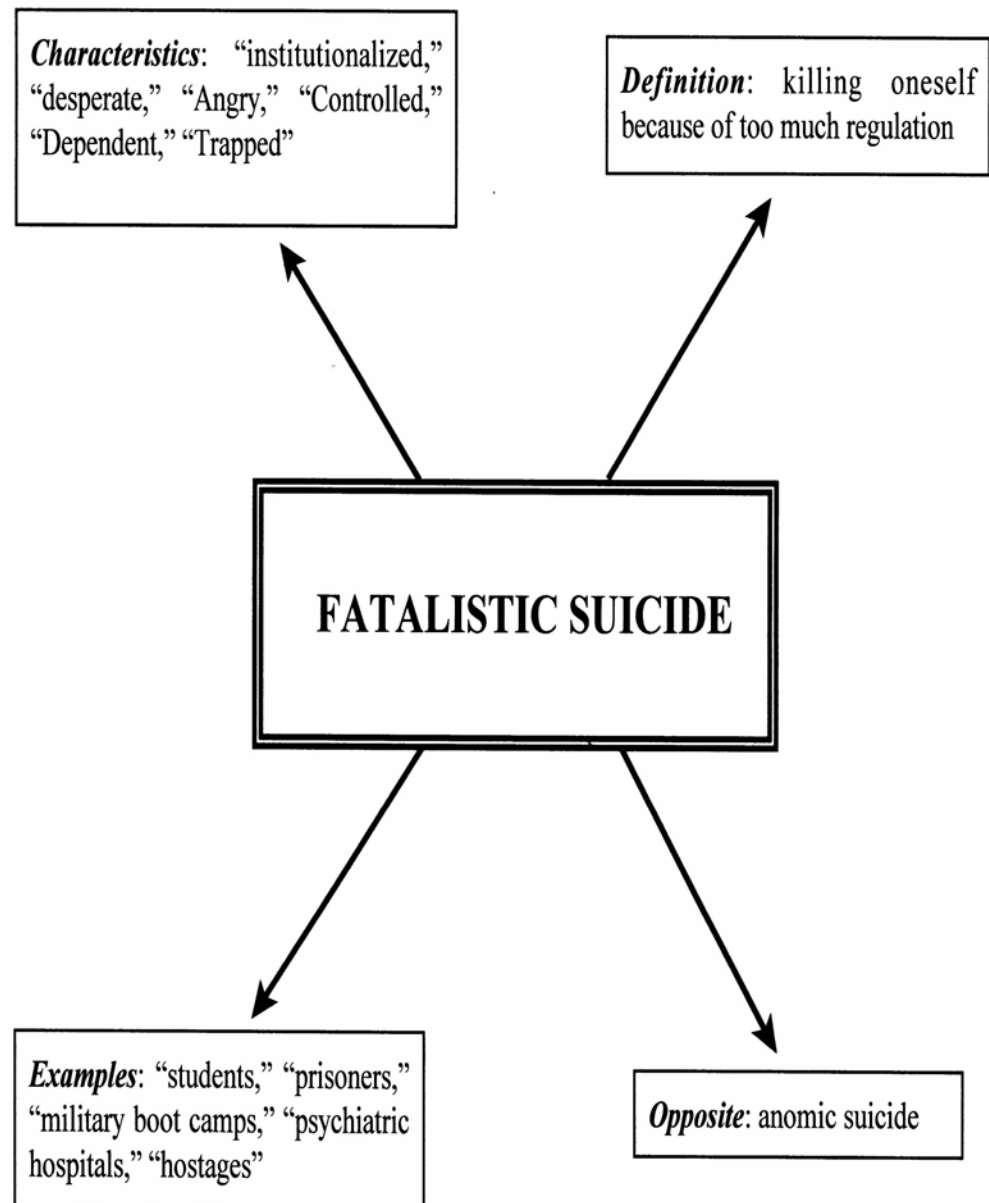


Figure 7: Graphic Organizer

With the lecture material completed, students were given a crossword puzzle that reviewed the most critical terms. The lesson then ended with two hands-on activities. The first simply reviewed the major themes of the lesson by having four students holding green cards with the names of the four social conditions Durkheim associated with suicide (low or high social integration and low or high social regulation) correctly pair themselves with four students holding blue cards with the names of Durkheim's four kinds of suicide (egoistic, altruistic, anomic and fatalistic). The second was a more challenging and abstract hands-on activity in which students, in groups of four to five, were given play dough (soft clay) and asked to create a three-dimensional model of how the two variables Durkheim used to explain variation in suicide rates (social integration and social regulation) were related to one another and the rates.

3. Results

The sheltered class session, it should now be evident, was distinctly different from the sort of class Schneider was used to conducting, and certainly conforms poorly with the pedagogical practice of most professors. Was the dramatic transformation effective? Initially, we tried our sheltering techniques on native English-speaking (NS) students. Why? We had speculated that students at our university, who are drawn predominantly from rural areas and from among the less accomplished graduates of secondary schools, might be disadvantaged in relation to the vocabulary and syntax of standard lecture presentations in the same way as international or immigrant students.⁴ We speculated that sheltering might successfully remove these linguistic barriers, just as it had been shown to do in the literature with NNS students.

To test this speculation, we developed a quasi-experimental design that exposed one group of students to the traditional, unsheltered format and another group to the same material in sheltered form. We then gave both groups the same multiple-choice exam in an effort to measure relative comprehension of the material. Our initial effort at sheltering involved different subject matter: Hegel's philosophy of history. We sheltered a lecture on this, and then divided a sociological theory class in half alphabetically, presenting the material in regular form to half the class and in sheltered form to the other half. The result? The multiple choice tests we gave showed no important difference in mean scores. In evaluating the lack of results we worried, however, that Hegel was perhaps too difficult a topic, or one too distant from the students' interests in sociology, to prove a fair test. So we proceeded to shelter a lesson on Durkheim's theory of variation in suicide rates—material that is arguably simpler than Hegel and nearer to students' concerns.

We proceeded as before, splitting the class in two and presenting each half with the same conceptual content in unsheltered and sheltered forms respectively. Again we found no difference in the performance of the two groups on an end-of-class multiple-choice test consisting of 14 items of

varying difficulty. The control group (N=16) averaged 8.56 correct (54%), while the treatment group (N=15) averaged 8.73 (56%).⁵ The highest score on the test was 14 and the lowest 3 (!), a range that correctly captures the variation in preparation and motivation among our students. We were a bit surprised that, despite the constant reiteration of definitions of terms in the sheltered form of the class, some students still chose the wrong definitions for them on the multiple-choice test—the “easiest” items we had been able to devise. There our experiment might have ended, had we not had access to classes of international students through our university’s intensive English program. Since sheltering was originally designed with *non*-native English speakers in mind, we borrowed the intensive English class and performed our experiment again. The students in this class were predominantly Asian, and had a very broad array of academic interests. Unlike our previous subjects, they were not sociology students, and not even enrolled as regular university students.

The half of the class (N=8) presented with the material in standard lecture-and-questioning format by the content specialist alone performed about as well as the NS sociology majors (8.87 or 63% correct on average)—a result that may reflect their superior academic preparation. However, the half of the class (N=6) that received the material in sheltered format taught by both of us scored higher (11.33 or 81% correct), outperforming both the other half of the class and the sociology majors. Variation on the test nearly matched that of NS students, with a high of 14 and a low of 4 correct.

4. Discussion

The number of subjects in our second trial was too small to place much confidence in this very interesting result, and a serious argument for sheltering would certainly have to be based on much more extensive research. Yet our preliminary results are suggestive.

If sheltering improves the academic performance of non-native English speakers to the degree that they perform better academically than native speakers, it would potentially allow them access to credit-bearing academic courses without spending so much time and money in intensive English programs. Additionally, it might significantly improve the access of immigrant populations to university education. We envision sheltered versions of introductory courses in numerous disciplines as a way of integrating non-native English speakers immediately into credit-bearing academic courses.

Is such a proposal realistic? There are certainly enormous barriers to be overcome. In the first place, sheltering course content is extremely time consuming, and thus calls for an investment of new or borrowed energy that professors almost certainly will not be happy to make. Second, it is apt to activate a whole series of prejudices that professors hold about education and about their profession. As indicated previously, sheltering course content involves techniques that seem

appropriate to primary or secondary education, but not to tertiary. These techniques produce a very different and quite alien classroom experience for the professor—and one that makes a university initially seem less of a university. Third, sheltering calls upon professors who have no real pedagogical interests, and certainly no pedagogical training, to take pedagogy very seriously. “Effective teaching” gets much “lip service” in US higher education, but only political pressure or incentives are apt to focus the attention of educators on demonstrably improving student outcomes (see Bok, 2006).

It was dissatisfaction with student outcomes that excited the content specialist’s interest in pedagogy over the last decade of his career (see Schneider, 2006, 2007). He was a good teacher only for good students, and had no idea how to help poorer or ill-prepared ones. While sheltering, we’ve found, seems *not* to be the answer to reaching such students if they are native speakers, it does seem promising for non-native English speakers, such as immigrant and international students.

5. Conclusion

This experiment in sheltering complex content has potential applications outside the US context in which it was conducted. As English (and other languages) increasingly become the media of instruction in courses offered to students of different native languages, in the EU and elsewhere, the processes of simplification and reinforcement developed to shelter content to make it more accessible to non-native speakers may prove useful. The specific processes we used are incidental in this regard. Thoughtful and innovative teachers should be able to develop additional ones, perhaps better suited to the tertiary context than the ones we used. If they succeed, we can expect accelerated learning of content, as well as enhancement of ability in English and other languages.

Notes

¹ Bok (2006: 51) comments on the failure of tertiary pedagogical research to have an impact on teaching in the USA: “Rather than risk...unsettling changes, better to ignore the research entirely, or, if others bring it up, dismiss it as inappropriate or unreliable. Shielded in this way, even professors who devote their lives to research continue to ignore empirical work of teaching and learning when they prepare their own courses or meet with colleagues to review their educational programs.”

² Bok (2006: 48-51) does not comment specifically on ignorance of sheltering as a technique, but does underscore the neglect of pedagogical training in US graduate education. He notes as well (2006: 234) that in the teaching of languages in the US, “Those who look upon language learning as a skill and stress its practical uses remain at odds with those who regard it as an entrée to foreign literatures.”

³ See Schneider (2006: xv-xviii) as well as Schneider (2007, available upon request). A comparison of Schneider 2006 with alternative sociological theory texts will illustrate this contention.

⁴ Entering students at our university average about 21.8 on the ACT (a test of scholastic preparation) in a state where all high school seniors take the exam and average 20.5. We draw the majority of our students from slightly above the middle third of their graduating classes. We assume they are roughly equal in ability and motivation to modal college students in the USA.

⁵ Because students were allocated to the experimental and control groups alphabetically simply for convenience, statistical tests of significance for differences in means are not employed.

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Innovative activities to improve second language integration*

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Abstract

A case study approach was used to report on how content integration was enhanced through different activities used to address concerns about the language ability of French as a second language teachers in a teacher preparation program. In addition to teaching methodology, students were expected to become familiar with aspects of specific professional jargon and metalanguage in French as part of their professional training and as described in the Ontario Ministry of Education guidelines. Our study reports on how content learning was integrated having students interact during specific activities devised to enhance strategic use of language; namely expressing professional thoughts and concerns through letter exchanges with peers, collaborative naming and charting for vocabulary enrichment and finally simulation, in order to promote internalization of content and raise professional awareness.

1. Introduction

In order to enhance content integration and address concerns about the language ability of developing professionals in their field of study, i.e. preparation for French second language (L2) teaching, we devised different activities. To promote internalization of content and improve upon language, we placed emphasis on professional, socio-cultural and affective aspects. Although some activities described may look familiar, they are implemented in a new way, with the intent to promote communicative competence and professional expertise, and assessed through interactions among peers.

Canada has two official languages and language policies mandate that school children learn both English and French. Teaching content and language in the second official language presents challenges in Canada, especially given the fact that our immigrant population is very diverse. Teacher specialization programs for French are delivered at Faculties of Education in Universities after students have completed an initial Bachelor's degree in their academic specialty. The course content is on methodology for teaching French but there is no language or grammar taught during the course

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as these are prerequisites. Difficulties for some of the students are compounded given the fact that not only do they struggle with French but they are also required to become fluent users of metalanguage in French for teaching as well as acquiring new language content in education methodology and second language teaching/learning research. The communicative approach to language learning and immersion programmes are characteristic of the methodological backgrounds the students come from. Thanks to these teaching approaches students are usually able to communicate quite freely in French with a high level of ability in listening comprehension but their grammatical accuracy is not always matching to the same degree. In a 2004/2005 study students showed an inability to integrate content specific vocabulary in conversational turns, as if a sort of paralysis or resistance to usage of specific terms had set in. So it was felt that perhaps students had to practice using those terms as an intermediate step between skill getting and skill using (cf. Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001).

2. Method

The approach adopted here is a case study as it allows to observe the unfolding of events in a natural way. Merriam (1998) believes that research focused on discovery, insight, and understanding from the perspectives of those being studied offers the greatest promise of making significant contributions to the knowledge base and practice of education. As a result of action-research in the context of the same class a year earlier, 2004-2005, new activities were devised to better meet learners' needs and we report here on their implementation during the academic year 2005-2006.

Hammerly's (1985) study of French Second language speaking students points to real shortcomings in language use and blames teachers developing student overconfidence as a downfall. Needless to say, accuracy is expected in professional contexts in addition to fluency. As far as comprehension was concerned, students were slowly taught to become familiar with the content vocabulary and recognized meanings in context. Nevertheless, bridging the gap between passive and active knowledge of the required content required more calculated intervention in order to avoid the use of mother tongue (L1) while teaching the L2. The context of content teaching in a second language poses its own specific problems, the most urgent of which is comprehension and assimilation of the content taught. We implemented activities in order to meet this goal, while dealing with a number of other issues. Innovative activities were centered around socio-cultural and affective influences on learning.

We identified a need for culturally situated activities that were also connected to learning how to teach. Researchers such as Gay and Kirkland (2003) have specifically reflected upon teaching practice and the importance of culture. Their "culturally responsive teaching (CRT)" is based on the

premises that multicultural education and educational equity and excellence are deeply interconnected, that teacher accountability involves being more self-conscious, critical and analytical of one's own teaching beliefs and behaviors and that teachers need to develop deeper knowledge and consciousness about what is to be taught, how, and to whom (p.181). In order to achieve this learning we looked first at activities to promote collaboration among the students. For the collaborative naming activity different groups of students take on a specialist perspective with each group recording relevant information on a drawing or chart. The drawing can either be divided into several sections or different levels of specialization attached to the labeling activity, e.g., from a more general to a more specific content, or from word labels to lexical phrases to full sentences. With three groups three different drawings with the same heading were positioned on a desk and groups took turns in placing labels in the area they were responsible for. For instance when labeling parts of the face (drawn by students at the beginning of class on a Bristol board or a sheet of newsprint) of what was called "the respected or reflective practitioner", one group labeled physical characteristics like clean teeth, cared for skin and hair..., while a second group placed labels characteristic of the personality like cheerful expression, approachable, etc. whereas a third group added desirable actions for a respected professional, e.g. does not jump to conclusions (near the head), does not yell at students (near the mouth), pays attention to every detail (near the eyes), listens attentively (near the ears), etc.

The next new activities were devised to change points of view through letter writing with the understanding that the activities, although centered around the professional specialization, had to be culturally connected and allow for personal input. They also had to be embedded in the cultural community. This decision stemmed from Mezirow's (1997) claim that learners can develop a frame of reference that is more self-reflective, discriminating and more inclusive. He sees a frame of reference as composed of two dimensions: habits of mind and a point of view. Habits of mind are broad, abstract, habitual ways of thinking, feelings that are influenced by cultural, social, educational, political beliefs, traditions and conditions. They become articulated in a specific point of view, e.g. ethnocentrism, which is the predisposition to regard others outside one's group as inferior. A resulting point of view is related to feelings, attitudes, beliefs one has regarding specific individuals or groups. Habits of mind are more culturally embedded, while points of view are subject to change and more accessible to awareness and to feedback from others. Twenty minutes were devoted weekly to writing to an in-class "pen pal", each student using a nickname so as to preserve anonymity.

The third activity type we put in place was group simulation around the topic: our school community. This decision was made after the in-class discussion of reading assignments of short case studies had been successful. These texts, in addition to problems to be solved, were intended to also provide the basic vocabulary that had to be learnt. It appeared that these texts only gave a passive

manipulation of the contents to be mastered because students did not have to search in their memory for the items needed and produce them during either personal or collective meaning-making and output, but instead they could rely on the written texts to find the information. So it appeared to be necessary to connect the content to the students' lives. Hence, to increase critical thinking and to push the use of content information to a higher order we implemented activities that promoted closer personal involvement and collaboration as well as critical thinking anchored in practical experience, based on our research on sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics (Myers, 2004).

3. Results

As mentioned above the objective was to promote interaction grounded in experience for an integration of content and language, situated in experience (Wenger, 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991). We took into account the importance of socio-cultural and affective factors in learning. Thus collaboration and simulation were given special emphasis and we emphasized the innovative features of the activities.

In community language learning (Mantero, 2007) collaboration was found to be grounded in real life problem solving. Task-based approaches have also been found to be more effective (Bygate et al., 2001). Collaboration was used in group naming activities (for learning vocabulary), in support and verification of language (grammar and new vocabulary) and facts (administrative procedures and application of Ministry curriculum guidelines, theoretical concepts relative to second language learning and teaching). Collaborative naming is such an activity, as would be other mind-maps or organizational charts arrived at collectively.

Students labeled more items on the second and third drawing, adding information, correcting inaccuracies with all the information pertaining to the topic of instruction. The naming activities provided much needed manipulation of new professional terms as well as phrases for professional dialogue in the L2. Peer correction and peer cross-fertilization of content were observed in all cases as students moved from one labeling task to the next in the sequence of three. The repetition provided the much needed reinforcement for storage into memory, with an expansion of the knowledge gained, especially in the case of the weaker students. Negotiation of meaning was observed as well as creative use of language and the development of strategic competence. A group's first naming activity often entailed inaccurate spelling, lack of the proper terms and missing information. The first repetition was usually an improved version but with slight differences, including corrections, additions but also omissions. Collaborative naming on the third drawing was usually more complete.

Another way of solidifying collaboration was through letter exchanges between peers around professional expectations and course content and delivery issues. We set up systematic

correspondence among student using nicknames, like what one would do when exchanging letters with a pen pal. A previous longitudinal study we conducted showed a tremendous increase in students' ability to freely express themselves and also a significant improvement of their accurate use of language forms over an eight month period without teacher intervention when early letters and end of year letters were compared. The theoretical underpinnings for this activity series also stem from research on vocabulary learning within the lexical approach (Lewis, 1993, 2000; Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992). Letter writing included taught content and a positioning of the students at a certain distance, which was evidence of a critical appropriation of principles and process. Personal reaction to content taught as well as meaningful use of specialized terms were observed. Letter writing also built confidence as the increase in letter length indicates, as well as improved discourse and strategic competencies. Letter exchanges also allowed for peer-review and corrections of language use. In addition, the students' fluidity or ease in writing was enhanced as they wrote much longer letters within the same time frame over the duration of the study. An integration of content items relative to activities at the Faculty at large and more specifically teaching content made for the students allowed further reflection upon what was discussed in class without direction from the instructor to that effect. Students were intrigued and kept their nicknames secret, which was easy at the beginning of the course since they really did not know much of one another. As the students were quite interested in continuing to write to their pen pals into the second semester, instead of eliminating the activity, the allotted time was cut by half, in order to include additional new content learning during class time. Eventually this decision dampened their interest and brought to a close pen pal exchanges a few weeks after the beginning of the second semester. However, despite the shorter time slot, some letters had increased in length and there was a definite improvement in student's facility with professional language use.

Simulation

Bygate et al. (2001) suggest to engage students in tasks for more effective language integration to teach in language that will be used as output. The two phases of skill getting and skill using that Bygate advocates do require an intermediate step as we believe that for skill using in real life situations such situations have to be practiced (Myers, 2004). In his researching, Bachman (1990) recognized the need for criterion referenced evaluation for that very same need to get proof that learners actually manage to apply interactional competence using what they have learned. Simulation projects allow to develop discourse competence in an attempt to bridge the gap between accuracy of usage in context and in co-text.

"Our school" project consists of a series of task based activities following the principles of global simulation activities and can be transposed and adapted to any context. Simulations are used

extensively in second language teaching but for activities usually lasting the duration of a class. The motivational factor observed during that practice and the spontaneous participation of all group members prompted the use of simulation activities in the content course because, in addition, spontaneous use of newly presented lexical items as well as a certain amount of lexical creativity during such activities were anticipated. In the content course, I first used class-length activities around simulation tasks based on conversation for the practice of grammar points with a concentration on given grammatical items as intertwined in a given activity. However, these activities did not resonate with the students, although they seemed to greatly enjoy them and provided grammar feedback to one another in their groups on the specific points under scrutiny. It became obvious that the simulations had to be more closely connected to the students' actual life experiences. So, group simulations around daily life activities in the students' school placement contexts called "our school " project were devised. This activity centered the discussion around the students' practicum placements in the different schools to which they had been assigned. The timing of the activity was particularly interesting because in our program the students come back to the Faculty of Education after a month in their school setting and the activity was a way to draw on their experiences as well as sharing them with others and also a way to look for further possibilities for their subsequent teaching upon the return to their respective schools. Students with similar school teaching practice placements were grouped together and asked to draw a composite school building, school yard and with as much as necessary relevant detail about the inside of the building, like in a see-through plan, correcting problems for an improved school design on a Bristol board or flip chart paper of a similar size. Through the simulation activity, problems, concerns, and ideas for the improvement of the present situation can be discussed without blame or criticism against one specific site but with the intention to problem solve and advance critical thinking overall for each created "our school" site. Students could also voiced their opinions and share the problems they experienced during their teaching practice with their peers, get support and share new ideas. In turn, major conclusions drawn after each discussion topic were written on lists. These conclusions were composites of the different group members' experiences and therefore not pointing to any individual or school in particular. Then the drawings were posted around the room and information shared by all. This activity took place in the language of instruction, French (L2), also the language of classroom teaching, transposing from the English speaking L1 context of the schools. This way appropriate vocabulary items around teaching and learning as well as school contexts could be learned in French through students' collaboration and also the instructor's intervention. The students enjoyed designing their composite school community and annotating their drawing. Each group agreed on a list of five major themes that they decided needed discussing and listed these on the plan. For instance, the group teaching French to students in Applied grade 9 classes and other Applied French courses

shared the concerns they had about the student population in these classes, how they managed, what strategies worked well and how the situation could be improved, including the physical set-up of the school and the classroom in order to enhance teaching and learning. Students teaching in French Immersion settings related their discussions to the specific aspects around immersion teaching, etc.

During this simulation activity students used teaching specific vocabulary, items from the curriculum guidelines including phrases from educational psychology, evaluation and general school context in the target language, helping each other in finding the appropriate phrases and sentences and grounding their discussion around content.

4. Discussion

The naming activity promoted good vocabulary building and allowed review and/or reinforcement of prior knowledge for some; it also was the basis for actual contact with the new information for the students who had not carried out all their reading assignments. It provided opportunities for learning from each other and a repackaging of the contents of the reading. This transposition into a new context actually promoted in a way team teaching among group members. Last but not least, systematic influencing of one another and also through the cognitive activity as a group went to the next picture for completion, more words came to memory, when labels given by other groups jogged the memory and brought out additional information. The most striking results observed through the letter writing were a somewhat systematic increase in fluency, longer letters written and student enjoyment during this activity. They always eagerly read the letter received and not once was there a student staring blankly in the air, in search of what to write. A look at the early letters showed that they were rather short compared to the last letters. It was also interesting to note that some students re-sent the letter to which they responded with their own after having corrected or rephrased some sections. Overall the later letters had better flow and contained more discussion topics. In addition there were some cultural connections made around school cultures as well as interesting personal “hypothetical” connections, i.e. around the role one had chosen to act out under the nickname or possibly a reflection of the real self.

During the simulation activity the use of content specific items improved compared to the prior more conversational type of language use. The small amount of writing connected to the simulation exercises showed that students had become more astute in the domain and were bringing more depth into the discussions around content also tied to their school experiences. The simulation also made the students delve more deeply into their beliefs and behaviors and they gained deeper knowledge and a better awareness of both teaching and content. For the duration of the second semester students’ writing skills improved with an awareness raising of sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics (Myers, 2004). Early in the year, to get students to use more content language in

their writing we had assigned weekly one page minimum reaction papers on their reading assignments on theoretical aspects. The intent was also to improve their critical thinking and their ability to reflect. We analyzed the lexical items used. Although 86% of the students in the 2005/2006 group (a 10% increase over the previous year) used content language regularly in their own sentences, a fair number of them still used their own words and content language only appeared in their written statements.

Critical thinking and deep understanding of theoretical content in a second language probably takes more time than it would in the student's mother tongue. The conclusion drawn is that the different steps for critical thinking and deep learning have to be practiced and explicitly indicated as a requirement, if one is expecting that level of sophistication in students' responses to target language content teaching of a more theoretical nature. I noted with interest that in new Ministry of Education guidelines, namely in the key messages (Ministry of Education of Ontario, 2006) there is an emphasis on metacognition, critical and creative thinking as well as on critical literacy defined as "The ability to be conscious of and, to some degree, control one's own thinking; the ability to know and apply appropriate thinking/literacy strategies when needed". Could this be as a reaction to noticing that the present student population is lacking in that domain? It is unclear if the activities entailed a change in their beliefs and values, although it appeared so throughout their discussions but we were unable to see this implemented outside our classroom. We recommend similar studies with, in addition, a field observation to see if classroom gains were extended into their practice.

5. Conclusion

According to Taylor (1992:173), "A case study is, by definition, limited in scope". It is important to be aware of the possible conflicts and restrictions of this research, namely by the instructor of the course also being the researcher which could lead to bias. Other limitations are due to the specific second language context of the ICL course which limits its transferability. Transferability is seen by Mackey and Gass (2005:180) where the "the research context is seen as integral. Although qualitative research findings are rarely directly transferable from one context to another, the extent to which findings may be transferred depends on the similarity of context". Although this research was carried out in a specific context, the same types of activities set up in parallel contexts where the same needs are felt could prove beneficial for improved learning. A discussion of the different activities implemented throughout the course with the students indicated a high level of student satisfaction. The importance of pragmatics has been long recognized since language competence was described by Hymes and Gumperz (1986) to be more than Chomsky's (1968, 1965) grammatical competence and also include sociolinguistic competence including all aspects of language use and related to issues of

appropriate such as the speaker, the addressee/s, the message, the setting or event, the activity, and the register.

Discourse competence is where everything else comes together. This is the central competency in the communicative competence framework (Johnson, 1983; Ellis, 1984; Brumfit, 1984; Swain & Lapkin, 1982) because it is through discourse that all the other competencies are realized and in fact it was in discourse that we were able to observe, assess and research the manifestation of the other competencies. Finally the study above is a contribution to Communicative Language Teaching (Littlewood, 1981).

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Media as content for language learning at university: impact on language proficiency*

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Abstract

The paper outlines a course using the on-line editions of British newspapers as the content for teaching English at University where students experience live contact with language while improving their linguistic and academic skills. Sample material from the course is quoted to exemplify what non-linguistic but related to academia skills are developed through this content. The impact on the language proficiency of the students is measured by pre- and post-course testing which reveals a good degree of progress. Questionnaires and attendance scores are used as evidence of what made the course appealing to the taste of students.

1. Introduction

While learning English has always been considered a must in university education, controversy exists about how to teach it and what content-carrier is suitable for developing the students' language and academic skills in tandem. Medgyes (1998) introduced the term **content proper** to refer to the linguistic content of the language lessons, and the term **content carrier** to refer to the subject matter which is used to carry out the lesson procedure. Thus, for example, when discussing the comparative degrees of adjectives (content proper) the lesson is about fast animals (content carrier). The expected outcome is the development of skills to use the comparative degrees of adjectives, implicit knowledge of adjectives and confidence in the use of language. Thus, selecting the right content carrier must ensure that the issue at stake is amply represented, a certain range of language items is covered and – most importantly – the subject matter calls for practising the target skills. Choosing a content carrier for teaching at university is more complicated than for teaching at high school level. On the one hand, holding the attention with curiosities may be below the interests of an audience eager to learn

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and develop. On the other hand, subject matter that is highly specialised may estrange some of the learners, depending on their main subject at university. From the point of view of skills, they should be connected with the adult life of educated people interested in academic pursuits. Restricting the scope to language skills only can deprive the course of its vital connection with real life. It seems as if critical reading of newspapers might be the answer to the challenge of choosing a subject matter suitable for teaching English at university.

The present paper outlines a course using the media as the content for teaching English at university where students experience live contact with language while developing their linguistic and academic skills. What additional skills are developed through this content and the impact on the language proficiency of the students – specifically on the academic skills – is traced below.

2. The teaching context

Learning English as a foreign language in Bulgaria is obligatory from the age of eight onwards. High schools specialised in teaching foreign languages enrol students after exams at the age of 14 and teach the language extensively (four classes a day for the first year) with the addition of content, such as history, science, literature etc. in the later stages. Such schools are very popular but only the best achievers from the lower levels succeed to continue their education there. Outside the specialised language schools English is taught as an obligatory course, but with fewer classes and lower requirements. Problems often exist with the qualification of teachers, the efficiency of the teaching, etc. Students can – and often do – follow additional courses outside primary and secondary school.

The New Bulgarian University (NBU) is a private university established in 1991. Its ambition is to provide modern education to the 12, 000 students who enrol each year, all of which pay fees for their education. Several specialised subject courses are taught in foreign languages, mostly English and French. However, despite the compulsory curriculum in high school and the additional training, the experience of the NBU has shown that the students' language proficiency is not high enough for them to succeed in academic study. It is often the case that students wish to start as beginners, despite the years of language learning at school and in private courses. Therefore, during the first two years of study extensive language training is provided free of charge (600 teaching periods). The exam in English is obligatory for those who wish to receive a degree.

The course in Media came as a response to the requirement to match language learning to the level of university studies. From the point of view of teaching aids, most of the traditional course books – *Headway*, *Matters*, *Upstream*, etc. – have been covered in high school, college, private courses etc., in some cases with deplorable outcomes. Exploiting such textbooks again might decrease the motivation of the learners. As far as the logistics of the courses at the NBU is concerned, attendance

is not compulsory, which does not favour the type of progression envisaged in commercial textbooks. Stand-alone sessions are much better suited to the fluctuating patterns of attendance.

Another issue is what type of language knowledge is needed for university studies. As revealed by the IELTS exams (IELTS Handbook, 2005), the focus in academic English is on a specific type of text, a special range of academic vocabulary and, above all, on analytical skills, such as inferencing, drawing conclusions, summarising, etc. In an attempt to meet these requirements, a range of experimental courses was designed, one of which was the course in Media.

3. The course in media

The course was developed to meet the requirements of studying English for academic purposes; to facilitate stand-alone classes, rather than a connected sequence; and to overcome the problems inherited from the lower levels of language study.

The overall parameters were as follows:

60 classes

6 classes each day, of which:

- 2 periods (45 min) for presentation of an analytical model,
- 2 periods for experimenting with the methodology, and
- 2 periods for student presentations.

The course in Media was advertised as an experimental alternative to the existing courses. Seventeen students enrolled voluntarily. The classes took place in a computer laboratory where each student had access to the Internet. The aim was to follow the news on the specific day as it was presented in major British media. The web pages of a selected range of newspapers were used. Mostly broadsheets were included, such as *The Times*, *Independent*, *Guardian*, *Telegraph*, *Express*, but also two tabloids – *Sun* and *Mirror*. The tabloids proved a major difficulty in terms of the colloquial usages, frequent references to local figures and events, etc. However, the contrast between broadsheet and tabloid news presentation needed to be explored.

The classroom procedures included a number of analytical models. Below, I review the models, exemplifying each one and outlining the learning potential in terms of the language and content skills and knowledge.

*Analytical model: **Unpack headlines***

Newspaper headlines are expected to be short, informative and attractive. Their form, therefore, needs to present the event in a condensed and effective form. Puns, coinages, metaphors and other figures of speech abound in headlines (Bell, 1991). To be able to understand a headline, students need to de-condense the syntactic shape and work out the figurative language.

For the headline “[No ifs or butts, Italy are champions](#)” (*The Times* 10.07.2006), for example, students were invited to make short sentences with the words in the headline, such as:

An Italian team played in a championship.

They became winners.

‘If’ and ‘but’ are used to pose a condition on something.

“Butt” is used of bucks, for example, when they hit each other with their antlers.

One of the players from the opposing team hit an Italian with his head, i.e. butted him.

Despite this, Italy won.

The learning potential includes language issues, such as the meaning of the words, structures for expressing modality, the complex sentence, puns and specialized vocabulary. The media knowledge concerns the use of language to impress readers, the brevity of expression. Topical issues were explored.

Understanding puns sometimes involved complex cultural knowledge. The headline “[Water, water everywhere \(but not a hose in sight\)](#)” in *The Independent* on May 22, 2006, required both knowledge of Coleridge’s poem *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner* and knowledge of the recent ban on using tap water for plants in London. At the same time, the headline “[Russia’s press freedom fears](#)” on June 18, 2006, in *The Times* demanded knowledge of the attributive use of nouns, as well as complex syntactic knowledge to decompress the expression.

*Analytical model: **Match headlines to abstracts***

The first sentence in a news item is known as the abstract (Bell 1991). It answers the 5 questions: What happened? Who did it? When? Where? Why? Therefore it summarises the most important issues in the article. The headline, as shown above, is something of a puzzle leading to the meaning. In a newspaper, headline and abstract follow each other, but for the sake of the course, they were separated and jumbled. Then the students were asked to match a headline to its abstract, as in the examples in Figure 1.

The learning potential of this exercise consists in exploiting synonymy, register and styles. The statement “I refuse to fold” is equivalent to the sense of the adjective “defiant”; both belong to

the informal, slangy style of the tabloids. The expression “have been accused ... to plot” corresponds to the use of the word ‘plot’ between inverted commas to suggest that the newspaper does not subscribe to the qualification. Both present a broadsheet style, therefore, *The Times* reported the event in this way. The phrasal verb ‘face down’ is synonymous to ‘crush’; they both belong to a colloquial style, typical of the *Sun*; ‘rebels’ are the organizers of a ‘coup’. The expression ‘to be at war’ means the same as the metaphor ‘to be plunged in its worst infighting’. Both represent the harsh attitude to the Left projected from the right-leaning *Telegraph*. Therefore, identifying synonyms, the level of formality and political attitudes expressed by the language use give a clue for successful matching. An example of political correctness is the use of ‘defiant’ and ‘refuse to fold’ – both with positive overtones – by the left-leaning tabloid *Mirror*, as different from the pugnacious imagery of the language of *Telegraph*. Thus media and language knowledge feed into each other, developing an attitude to language as a means of expression rather than as a laboratory skill practiced in a vacuum, with a hypothetical relation to the outside world.

<u>Left's 'plot' to oust Blair</u> (<i>times</i>)	DEFIANT Tony Blair last night urged Gordon Brown to help him crush a left-wing plot to topple him.
BLAIR EXCLUSIVE: I REFUSE TO FOLD (<i>mirror</i>)	Rebel MPs have been accused by ministers and Downing Street of a plot to force Tony Blair out now and return the party to the hands of the Left
PM: I'll crush rebels (<i>sun</i>)	Labour was plunged into its worst infighting for a generation after Downing Street warned of a plot by rebel MPs to oust Tony Blair and take the party back to the Left.
<u>Labour at war over plot to oust Blair</u> (<i>telegraph</i>)	TONY Blair will today face down a Labour party coup trying to force him out of office.

Figure 1. An illustration of the exercise ‘Match headlines and abstracts’ (June 7, 2006).

Analytical model: Arrange the headlines in order of significance

Researchers (Galtung & Ruge, 1965) have established that stories are newsworthy when they affect many people; are about sensitive issues: crime, children, nature; are close to the reader, or in regions of interest; project famous personalities. Newspapers present the stories in order of significance – the more important ones appear on the front pages, the less important ones follow deeper inside. Two parameters influence the decision: the news values outlined above and the profile of the newspaper. Additionally, different newspapers may choose to highlight a specific aspect in the coverage of an event which they consider newsworthy. In the example above, all the articles report the same event, but *Mirror* features the manly position of Blair, *Telegraph* – the disintegration of the Left, *Sun* – Blair’s

heavy-handed approach to anybody willing to take power away from him, while *The Times* sticks to a factual report without taking sides.

The exercise in arranging the headlines in order of significance builds upon the previous two analytical models: unpacking headlines and matching them to the respective abstracts. It is seen as a progression in the development of the students' skills. Moreover, it exploits issues of greater complexity, such as the projected significance of events, the target audiences, the editorial policies, etc. From the point of view of language learning, having 'unpacked' the headlines and matched them to the abstracts, in this exercise the students can exploit the vocabulary to discuss what is important for them, what they expect to be significant for the newspaper. Working in groups to rank the headlines, students use language (English) communicatively to solve a problem. Additionally, assessing reasons for highlighting one piece of news and downgrading another requires critical thinking. The skill which is developed is also a practical one for journalism, with a great deal of linguistic impact.

*Analytical model: **Anchoring pictures***

This model is based on Barthes (1977). Analysing an advertisement of Italian pasta, Barthes notes that it consists of a linguistic message (text) and an iconic message (an image). The image evokes a host of associations, but the function of the linguistic message is to focus the attention on only one aspect of the image, in this case – Italianicity. A similar method of transmitting messages is often employed by newspapers, which use captions to 'anchor' only one of the several meanings implied by the pictures they publish. The ability to understand the message of images combined with text is considered part of the set of critical skills.

The training exercises in the Media course present a picture from a newspaper and the students are asked to describe it – what is denoted and what the connotations are. Then they compare the possible connotations with the caption to check which of the meanings is anchored. One of the pictures used in the course elicited the following answer:

Denoted image: In the picture are the decorative figures of bride and groom on top of a wedding cake. The cake has been cut to separate the two figures. **Connoted:** food, marriage, partners, celebration, separation. The caption "The rewritten rules of marriage and divorce" directs to the meaning 'separation', i.e. anchors one of the associations.

The learning potential of this exercise includes knowledge of denotation and connotation. This is a complex concept, befitting the university level. As for linguistic skills, precision of language use is required for describing the pictures. Another skill broadly linked to language is associative

thinking, practiced while generating possible connotations of the image. Critical thinking is once again involved in deciding why this meaning is illustrated with the particular picture. Along with semiotics, the knowledge of media extends beyond the language and into the domain of illustration.

Other Analytical models include comparing the coverage of one event by two or more newspapers, creating a digest, exploring the use of metaphors, translation and back translation, etc.

Therefore, the course introduces knowledge about both media and language. The skills relate to the two spheres: language and media. The course also fosters attitudes of critical assessment of language in connection with its use in the specific field of the media, and of the media with a view of the language they employ. Thus the entire range of knowledge, skills and attitudes outlined as competence in the Common European Framework of reference for languages (Council of Europe, 2001) is encompassed.

4. The outcomes

The effectiveness of the course was measured by a language test, a questionnaire with the participants and by the attendance statistics.

The questionnaire was administered by a colleague uninvolved with the project, at a time after the course grades were given. Firstly, the participants were asked to evaluate the usefulness of the course components on a scale of 5 values: definitely useful, useful, neutral, useless or definitely useless. All the options were rated by the respondents as either 'definitely useful' or 'useful', three course components only received appreciation as 'neutral'. The greatest number of respondents rated the options as follows:

- The opportunity to work with contemporary texts
- The connection of the material with real life events
- The opportunity to develop life skills
- The opportunity to learn about life in the UK
- The opportunity to engage in independent study

Neutral usefulness was given to the opportunity to learn about life in the UK, to engage in independent study and to develop life skills. Additional interviewing revealed that the students considered information about life in the UK ancillary rather than central, which led to this attribution. Their opinion was that independent work with the material could not be done without taking instruction first, which in fact means that they would prefer to be guided rather than left to work on their own. Concerning the life skills, they did not have experience of reading the newspapers

before the course, which is why they thought of the course as an entirely educational exercise rather than a life skill.

The second question invited the students to grade their own skills developed through the course as excellent, very good, good, fair or weak. Most of the respondents assessed their abilities as excellent and very good. Isolated cases of ‘good’ grades occurred. The greatest number of excellent answers went to the options (in this order):

- The ability to work with schemata
- The ability to guess the meanings of words
- The skill to understand texts ignoring unfamiliar words
- The skill to understand the nature of the tasks
- The ability to use a range of strategies while working with texts
- The ability to understand academic texts
- The ability to tackle challenging tasks

Finally, the respondents were asked to grade the opportunities of the course to develop certain skills as excellent, very good, good, fair or weak. The majority of the answers qualified the opportunities as ‘excellent’, significantly fewer were classified as ‘very good’, negative qualifications were not encountered. The course gave excellent opportunities to develop the following skills, according to the respondents:

- An increase in the vocabulary
- To distinguish comment from fact
- To use the abstracts of news articles as a source of information
- To create digests of the press
- To understand the headlines
- To work with authentic texts

Several free comments urged for more courses like this one and expressed opinions that the course had been extremely beneficial – an impression reinforced by the fact that there was a waiting list for the second run of the course.

The effects of the teaching were measured by its impact on the language level of the students. To assess this, the Reading section of the IELTS test was used. At admission, a two-hour test consisting of 20 items was administered. At exit, the difficulty was doubled by setting 40 items

for 2 hours. The results (figure 2) show that at admission one student was dramatically below the pass level of the IELTS: at 42% of the score. Six students were barely at the pass level: 60% of the score. Five students scored well and very well at 70%. Three students achieved excellent scores. At exit, two weeks later, two of the highest scorers underachieved – an effect due, perhaps, to the greater precision of the 40-item test. Eight students achieved maximal scores – above 80%. Three scored at 70%. The language improvement measured by increase of the test results was 4% on average, ranging for each course participant between 20% and 1%. Generally, the better part of the group scored excellent grades. Judged against the main stream, none of the courses in general English at the NBU boasts similar success.



Figure 2. Language proficiency of the students at admission and exit of the Media course. Vertically – the score at the IELTS test in percentage, horizontally – the students.

The elements of the test can be classified into two types. The first type of task demands application of analytical skills: drawing implications, making conclusions and summarizing. The second type of task is similar to the usual comprehension test of details and vocabulary. For the research sample, improvement of the analytical skills exceeds the improvement of the understanding of details. Therefore, the course in media developed the students' skills for critical thinking, their analytical skills and the academic language proficiency.

Additionally, all the students on the course attended at least 80% of the classes, while attendance at language courses at the NBU is generally around 40%. This high attendance is seen as evidence that the course motivated the students highly.

5. Conclusion

The course in English through Media is aimed at a competence which overarches both spheres – the language and the media. Neither stands in isolation and each feeds into the other. Knowledge of linguistic issues, such as synonymy, style, syntax, etc. fosters the understanding of Media issues, such as headlines, abstracts, news values, political correctness, the use of visuals, etc. The practice of media issues, for its part, offers opportunities to expand linguistic knowledge further than the basic spheres explored in high school into fields such as denotation and connotation, political correctness, finer hues of meaning, style distinctions, specialized vocabulary, etc. The success of the course was due to the fact that the advanced content, the link with actual issues motivated the students highly. The integration of language and content was at its best.

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Part 4: Realizing Assessment and Evaluation

PLATE – Project in Language Assessment for Teaching in English*

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Abstract

Copenhagen Business School (CBS) finds itself needing to address the issue of English-medium instruction for its increasing number of foreign exchange and full degree students. With internationalisation as a main pillar of the institution's agenda, there are concerns whether the teaching faculty's level of English is sufficient for the increasing number of courses offered in English each semester. This paper addresses these concerns and describes a pilot project initiated in 2003 at CBS to gauge the overall English language proficiency of those teaching content courses in English. Through the Project in Language Assessment for Teaching in English (PLATE) language professionals from CBS's Language Center observe teachers and provide feedback using evaluation criteria from the Common European Framework for Reference (CEFR) supplemented by some additional criteria which take the LSP nature of academic teaching and lecturing into account.

1. Introduction and Background

This paper presents PLATE, a pilot project in language assessment for teaching in English at Copenhagen Business School. The presentation is divided into two parts. The first part gives a brief outline of the background for introducing the PLATE project, and the second part describes the project and the findings so far in detail.

Situation in Denmark and at CBS

A recent report produced by a Globalisation Council set up by the Danish Government with the task of advising the Government on a strategy for Denmark in the global economy reflects once again that globalisation and internationalisation are the order of the day in Denmark. In the university sector this means for instance that universities receive exchange students or full degree students from abroad, and that more and more courses or full programmes are taught in English by non-native

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English speakers, i.e. speakers who have Danish or other languages as their mother tongue, and aimed at students, many of whom are – like their teachers – non-native speakers of English. This situation is similar to the situation at universities all over the world.

Copenhagen Business School is an active player in the field of globalisation and internationalisation. The institution has exchange and cooperation agreements with more than 300 universities around the world. CBS receives a large number of foreign students either as full degree students or as exchange students, and sends many CBS students abroad to study for a semester or a full academic year. In 2005, of the 12,080 full-time students, 21% came from abroad (1296 full degree and 1213 exchange). That year there were also 38 visiting or tenured international professors. Although CBS is a Danish university, of the 41 degree programmes currently offered at the institution, 17 are English-medium (42%). At the undergraduate level, 6 of the 16 degree concentrations are conducted in English, while 11 of the 17 graduate concentrations in economics and business administration are conducted in English. In addition to the full degree programmes, CBS offers a large number of English-medium courses for both local and international students and through the International Summer University. Lastly, a majority of CBS's flagship MBA and executive programmes are taught in English (53% of programmes).

English-medium instruction in Denmark: pros and cons

Many regard the extensive use of English in the university sector as a positive development. Most of the advantages often cited have to do with the internationalisation of the institution. For example, by offering not only individual courses, but full degree programmes in English, Danish universities have the opportunity to compete in the global higher education market and to attract highly qualified foreign students and teachers. Foreign exchange or guest professors can be involved actively in teaching and offer courses to local and international students.

Over and above the branding and placement of the institution, the assumption is that courses conducted in English will help develop the foreign language skills of non-native English speakers and prepare them for both a period as exchange students abroad and for the job market, where English at an advanced level is required in many positions. In addition, English-medium courses (or courses taught in other foreign languages) with participation of foreign students will help local students acquire international insight and understanding of other cultures. Lastly, teaching in English at university level may seem a natural development in a country like Denmark where university students for years have used textbooks written in English.

The problematic side of the extensive use of English in the university sector is frequently debated both in the media and in the university sector. Some of the problems discussed have been that Danes tend to overestimate their own competence in English, that the academic level of a

content course may risk being limited by the teachers' competence in English, and that the students' learning process will be hampered both by their own competence in English and by their teachers' competence in English. For example, Davidsen-Nielsen notes "that Danes are not as good at speaking English as we think" (Hagerup, 2006b), while Jarløv expresses fear that "the academic 'ceiling' for teaching will be formed by the teacher's ability to communicate in English" (Jarløv, 2006). Stage states:

If you teach or are taught in a language which is not your mother tongue, details disappear... Many teaching situations require a ping pong dialogue between teachers and students... Teaching in English requires that you are able to juggle the language. It is not enough that you can cope in English. If you are expected to teach in English at an advanced academic level, your competence in English must necessarily also be at an advanced academic level. But this is a requirement that only few university teachers can meet. (Hagerup, 2006b)

Finally Andersen suggests that teaching in bachelor's programmes should usually be in Danish, and that textbooks at the bachelor's level should also be in Danish. He reports that in his own experience Danish-medium students get better grades than English-medium students (Hagerup, 2006a). There is thus a risk that English-medium courses in countries where English is not the mother tongue can be an obstacle to some of the most important goals of a university, i.e. knowledge, learning, etc.

In the university sector, the use of English as a medium in teaching content courses has been debated in different contexts over a period of time. At the national level, the Danish Rectors' Conference produced a report on Language Policy at Danish Universities in March 2003 containing recommendations that Danish universities should consider when formulating their own language policy. One of the recommendations is that university teachers should be given the opportunity to strengthen their competences in language and (intercultural) communication so they can cooperate with colleagues abroad and teach their subject in a foreign language (The Danish Rectors' Conference, 2003: 7).

At the institutional level at CBS, the issue has for instance been discussed in the International Committee. These discussions have taken place in connection with the follow-up on student evaluations of English-medium courses or programmes. The general pattern in these evaluations is that many non-native English teachers do very well when they teach in English. The average rating given by students for obligatory courses at the Master's level at CBS in 2005 was 4.0 out of a maximum of 5. However, students occasionally indicate that they regard their teacher's

ability to teach in English as inadequate and similar attitudes are sometimes expressed by student members of the International Committee or in the CBS newspaper.

To address these types of charges, The Language Center (LC) at CBS moved forward in 2003 with the launch of PLATE. Quality assessment and quality control are regarded as important issues at CBS; therefore, the Faculty of Economics and the LC hoped to identify both teachers who needed extra support in order to teach their subject in English and teachers who could serve as models of excellence.

2. PLATE – the Project

The PLATE initiative began as a pilot project to identify the strengths and rectify the weaknesses in the English-medium programmes at CBS. The concerns of the dean of the Faculty of Economics focused on meeting the expectations of all the stakeholders involved in the international teaching process at CBS, i.e. the students, the teachers and the International Committee. As the LC at CBS already had programmes in place for academics who – on a voluntary basis – wanted training in English, it was determined that an assessment scheme could help identify others who could benefit from such training. Thus it was decided that the LC should develop a tool for assessing academic staff with respect to their English language fluency and communication skills for teaching and presentation.

Since the commercial tools available for English language proficiency assessment tend to focus on general English abilities and not academic language skills or presentation skills (Klaassen and Räsänen, 2006: 237), the LC developed an assessment tool drawn from the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) to meet CBS's internal needs. An international team of LC teachers, comprising both native (NS) and non-native (NNS) speakers of English (NS: USA and UK; NNS: Belgium and Denmark), identified specific subsets from the CEFR and reviewed the suitable sub-criteria for the act of teaching and presenting. Unanimous agreement was quickly reached that the teachers should achieve an overall assessment of C1 (Proficient User) on the CEFR scale. Ultimately, the team agreed upon four subsets for building the assessment tool:

- overall oral production,
- overall spoken interaction,
- sociolinguistic appropriateness, and
- overall presentation skills.

The last subset, overall presentation skills, is not included in the CEFR, which is a reference document that outlines general language skills, but the LC team decided to include an evaluation of these skills in the assessment.

Within the scope of the first subset, **overall oral production**, teachers should be able to meet the CEFR in this area at the C1 level:

Can give clear, detailed descriptions and presentations on complex subjects, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. Can give clear, systematically developed descriptions and presentations, with appropriate highlighting of significant points, and relevant supporting detail. (Council of Europe, 2002: 58)

Here, additional focus is placed on the teacher's abilities to give public announcements and addressing audiences.

In regard to **overall spoken interaction**, the second subset, the teacher's accuracy and fluency skills are considered. The global description of overall spoken interaction at C1 states that the teacher:

[c]an express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions. There is little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies; only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.

Can use the language fluently, accurately and effectively on a wide range of general, academic, vocational or leisure topics, marking clearly the relationships between ideas. Can communicate spontaneously with good grammatical control without much sign of having to restrict what he/she wants to say, adopting a level of formality appropriate to the circumstances. (Council of Europe, 2002: 74)

This assessment is built on five sub-criteria, namely: 1) general linguistic range, 2) vocabulary range, 3) vocabulary control, 4) grammatical accuracy, and 5) phonological control.

The issue of phonological control is often quite controversial in the Danish context. Danish students tend to draw a parallel between fluency/proficiency and pronunciation. Native-like pronunciation and phonological control is highly prized in Scandinavia and a great deal of emphasis is placed on this element in foreign language training. Although satisfied with a teacher's performance in English, students often express dissatisfaction if that teacher's language is accented. For the PLATE assessment, the team believed a B1 skill level was sufficient:

Pronunciation is clearly intelligible even if a foreign accent is sometimes evident and occasional mispronunciations occur. (Council of Europe, 2002: 117)

According to the team, the third area, **sociolinguistic appropriateness**, should carry a great deal of emphasis in this type of assessment. Given the nature of the international, interactive classroom in a Danish context, stress was placed on the teacher's abilities to reflect and consider the learning styles and background of the student population at the C1 level. Thus, focus was placed on whether the teacher:

[c]an use language flexibly and effectively for social purposes, including emotional, allusive and joking usage. Can express him- or herself confidently, clearly and politely in a formal or informal register, appropriate to the situation and person(s) concerned. (Council of Europe, 2002: 122)

This naturally builds from the B2 criteria which states that the teacher:

[c]an sustain relationships with native speakers without unintentionally amusing or irritating them or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker. Can express him- or herself appropriately in situations and avoid crass errors of formulation. Can perform and respond to a wide range of language functions, using their most common exponents in a neutral register.

In addition, the choice of topic and materials, as well as the manner in which these are presented (teaching/learning styles), falls under this category. Although the context is Danish, it was felt that students should not have to be intimate with the Danish educational system to understand a teacher's lecture or follow his/her style.

Lastly, the fourth subset, **overall presentation skills**, focuses on the teacher's presentation and didactic skills. Since the CEFR does not provide criteria for these skills, the assessment team agreed on the following points for observations: 1) content and organisation, 2) non-verbal factors including eye contact, facial expressions, presence, movement (if any) within the space provided, gestures, and use of IT and other support material. At CBS, the teaching and learning unit, The Learning Lab, is responsible for a teacher's overall didactic training and development. Thus, the PLATE project does not focus heavily on this aspect of a teacher's performance. Instead, the main focus is on language and communication.

Implementation

With the tool in place, concern developed among both the staff at the dean's office and the LC regarding how to approach the academic staff. As Klaassen and Räsänen (2006: 245) note, most non-native speaking teachers believe that their English skills are fine since they are highly active in

international communities and conferences. Based on this and the average teacher's reluctance for observation by outsiders, the language assessment team was concerned that doors would be closed to a mandatory assessment set down by the dean given that Danish administration of higher educational institutions at that time was flat with limited centralized control. Thus, the dean's office became responsible for presenting this project to the teachers. At the outset, the dean's office sent out letters to a select group of teachers (those involved in CBS' most prestigious programmes taught in English). The letters included a description of the project, the assessment form and the CEFR criteria. Transparency was vital for the success of this project.

However, the reaction by the academic staff in the Faculty of Economics was just the opposite. PLATE was very positively received and welcomed by the teachers. The teachers' reactions tended to stem from a combination of insecurity and curiosity. Many teachers commented that it had been years since they had had any type of feedback and they welcomed the opportunity to talk about their language and didactic skills. They also suggested that student input could strengthen the end result.

“Great initiative. I think that comments from students could add to the value of the survey. I'd welcome professional feedback on my teaching as well.”

“I think this is a good initiative, which has the potential to support the faculty's teaching skills in English.”

Although the teachers appeared pleased to be getting feedback, there was some hesitation as to how much time and energy they wanted to invest in improving this area of their skills.

“I want to improve my English. To be very good is not important for me. I have so many academic fields that it would be a wrong priority to invest too much time on improvements. But during this semester, it has been fun to lecture in English – and to improve. ... a slow and guided improvement would be OK.”

In general, the response to the initiative made implementation of the project much easier. With open doors, the assessment team was much more relaxed about critiquing teachers.

Originally, the observation plan included a drop-in element, where a member of the assessment team was to observe the teachers unannounced. The dean's office provided the LC with a list of teachers who were to be observed, along with their teaching schedule. A plan was set up for observation, but, unfortunately, this arrangement had its flaws. With current curricular options at CBS, many of the scheduled courses include guest professors, student presentations, as well as other innovative teaching options. Thus, a great deal of time was lost when members of the assessment team turned up to observe and the designated teachers was not teaching that day. To rectify this situation, the drop-in element was eliminated and teachers were contacted directly (by email) by the

observer to confirm time, date and location of a lecture. This change significantly increased the hit rate.

Shortly after the observation, the teacher met with the observer for a feedback session. Prior to the feedback session, the teachers were asked to fill out a questionnaire to get them started on the reflective process. At the session, the observer ran through the assessment sheet with the teacher, providing examples from the lecture to support the critique. The teachers received a copy of the assessment sheet (both in hard and electronic forms) for their records.

Initial findings

The findings from the observations were reported to the Faculty of Economics in the following categories: 1) no further language training required; 2) further language training required; 3) extensive language training required. The dean's office was not privy to the individual results of the teachers. The actual CEFR ratings and results of the observation were only discussed between the teacher and the observer.

The initial 25-30 observations resulted in a majority of assessments at C1 and C2. There were 2-3 teachers who were assessed overall as B2, but in general this level of English proficiency was not inhibiting their teaching performance. The teachers who received an assessment below C1 came forward willingly to request in-service training to work on their weaknesses. In many cases, pronunciation and phonological control caused difficulties for the teachers, but not to the extent that it prohibited communication.

Although this initial finding appears to be positive, there is some doubt as to the target group. The LC was not given an overall list of teachers, but rather a specific list selected by the dean's office, and the results may therefore not be representative. As mentioned above, the teachers who were observed were teachers in CBS's elite programmes: the long-term English-medium programmes at the school, including the undergraduate BSc in International Business, the MSc in International Marketing and Management and the recently developed full-time MBA programme. The teachers in these programmes are hand selected and tend to be very international. Many of them have studied or taught abroad for a number of years and feel very comfortable in an international context in English.

The pilot stage of PLATE was, however, productive. The programme was welcomed by the teaching staff in the Faculty of Economics. It shed new light on the needs of the institution as it continues to develop more and more English-medium programmes, and it gave the LC the opportunity to develop an assessment programme which can be used to support all teachers who are required to teach in English. In the future, issues of reliability and validity in assessment will need to be addressed to develop a more robust assessment programme.

3. Conclusion

Since the establishment of the PLATE project, initiatives of this type have been recommended in a number of contexts. A report from the Danish Rectors' Conference on the Internationalisation of Danish Universities from February 2004 lists eight points which institutions ought to consider when formulating a language policy. One of these points is that universities should have a policy and guidelines for quality control of teaching in English by non-native English teachers and for in-service training (The Danish Rectors' Conference, 2004: 16). The Globalisation Council report from April 2006 suggests that higher education institutions should draw up a plan "for how the linguistic competences of teachers and lecturers can be improved" (The Danish Government, 2006: 19). And the issue which the PLATE project is designed to deal with is furthermore addressed in the CBS Language Policy, which was approved by the CBS board in June 2006. This policy document suggests among other things that CBS should "focus on identifying those teachers who need development of their English-teaching competence", and that "the PLATE programme should be used as an obligatory tool to ensure quality in the teaching in English" (Copenhagen Business School, 2006: section 8).

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A reflective approach to HE language provision: integrating context and language through semi- structured reflection*

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Abstract

Taking a sociocultural perspective to second language acquisition, this paper describes the implementation in an HE curriculum of an approach that encourages students to reflect on language learning in its wider context. Students are provided with tools for reflection through which they can make clear statements to language providers about their language learning experiences. This reflection has a positive influence on our courses because it produces greater awareness of individual learning needs amongst both our students and their teachers. Students can use a range of structured resources to build on both positive and negative experiences, developing strategies for future language learning that are relevant not only to their personal development but also to the wider context of their studies. Teachers can make reflexive use of the information produced for the evaluation of course contents in order to meet the contextualised needs of future students.

1. Reflection and the Situated Learning perspective

This paper describes the implementation in an HE curriculum of an approach that encourages students to reflect on their experiences of language learning. This has involved providing students with tools for reflection through which they can make clear statements to language providers about their language learning experiences. It has also meant encouraging students to play a more active role in determining, and subsequently revising, their language learning goals. In this paper, we report on the positive influence of this reflection as a means of encouraging greater awareness of individual learning needs amongst both our students and their teachers. Furthermore, we argue that the use of

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reflective tools as part of a well-designed framework creates opportunities for the evaluation of course contents in order to meet the contextualised needs of students.

In this paper, we discuss language acquisition from a sociocultural perspective, drawing particularly on *situated learning*, which is defined as “learning as changing participation in situated practices” (Zuengler & Miller, 2006: 40).

We can consider second language learners who demonstrate a change from limited to fuller participation in social practices involving their second (or additional) language as giving evidence of language development.

(Zuengler & Miller, 2006: 41)

Situated learning therefore emphasises that individuals are, or would be, part of a learning community or community of practice (Wenger, 1998; Zuengler and Miller, 2006). Our approach has been informed by research that highlights the importance of the relationship between both individual learners and the academic communities in which they study (Leki, 2001; Dantas-Whitney, 2002; Kinginger, 2004; Morita, 2004). Such studies promote the idea that reflection involves the performance of identity, and that identity in turn is related to membership of a community. Achieving membership of a speech community (or communities) has been shown to be vital to the success of second language learners on international programmes.

Because learning a language is learning to exercise both a social and a personal voice, it is both a process of socialization into a given speech community and the acquisition of literacy as a means of expressing personal meanings that may put into question those of the speech community.

(Kramsch, 1987, in Kramsch, 1993: 233)

This notion of socialization goes beyond the integration of *content* and language, leading us to consider the whole *context* of the learning environment. In this paper, we contend that, through reflection, students are able to monitor and record the progress of their linguistic adjustment to the demands of a speech community. For this reason, we ask our students to create a record of their situated learning through descriptions of their linguistic successes and failures as they seek to participate in academic communities. While our students are given the creative space to consider their experience as language learners in the widest sense, as described in section 3 below, the use of reflective tools is structured within the educational process to ensure that valuable information is recorded in such a way that it may become the subject of future evaluation or further reflection. The

term ‘semi-structured’ reflection, as used in this paper, refers to this combination of creativity and structuring.

We should stress that in focusing on the wider *context* or community we are not rejecting the notion of *content* integration as a key element in language provision in HE. Indeed, *content* is at the core of language provision in our *context*. Rather, we would like to emphasise that the learning environment, as experienced by our students, comprises a complex web of factors that all play a part in the acquisition of language. Student reflections can make this complexity more transparent and hence more manageable. We discuss the increasing complexity of this environment in more detail in section 2.

2. Diversity within the HE curriculum: implications for language practitioners

The context of this paper is English language provision within international Higher Education in the Netherlands. Our specific case, outlined in detail in section 3, is the International Economics & Business (IE&B) programme at the University of Groningen. The IE&B programme is taught entirely through the medium of English, and students attend English classes provided by the university Language Centre throughout the first year of their studies. Below, in order to give a wider perspective, we first discuss the environment within which such language provision is established in the Netherlands.

According to Coleman, “today HE belongs to a globalized market” (2006: 3). We observe how this globalization within international HE in the Netherlands filters down through national and supra-national policies to local curriculum managers and ultimately impacts upon the language classroom. In the wake of the Bologna agreement, we find that students entering HE to study through the medium of English in the Netherlands are able to make significant choices from an ever-wider variety of options within both Master’s and Bachelor’s programmes. Such diversity, as opposed to a single set curriculum, means that today’s learners have less predictable language learning needs than their predecessors.

Further to this trend towards a more varied but fragmented curriculum, a focus on internationalization within HE institutions leads to greater student mobility. Our students have a kaleidoscopic mix of backgrounds, experiences and needs, which inevitably impacts upon the decisions that we make as providers of English language courses. Under these circumstances, it is becoming less desirable, for instance, to provide language support courses focusing on the development of core vocabulary to support learning within limited and pre-determined content areas, as was the case initially at IE&B (see section 4). Rather than catering for narrowly defined content areas, we are encouraging greater awareness amongst teachers of the shifting *contexts* within which our students must learn to function.

We assume that as diversity in HE extends, students will increasingly lack a home base. They may be following courses at several faculties simultaneously or, for a certain period, they may not be studying at their own faculty at all. As students move across learning communities in this way, the issue of socialization, discussed above, becomes ever more relevant. Language learners need to develop strategies in order to participate effectively in new communities. Language providers may play an increasing role in fostering awareness of such issues, and this depends on course structures that allow for the emergence of interaction or socialization in unplanned or unenvisaged ways.

As Wenger (1998) reminds us, “learning is an emergent, on-going process, which may use teaching as one of its many structuring resources” (Wenger, 1998: 267). In other words, the teacher is just one of many resources made available to the student. Technology and the Internet give us scope to move beyond traditional course structures. Consequently, we are developing a more reflexive approach to our students’ diverse language needs, encouraging students in the acquisition of strategies that will serve their language learning needs in the longer term. We do this by providing a framework of support materials around core course content, delivered through our electronic learning environment, Blackboard. However, as students are encouraged to be more independent, we need to encourage them to be self-critical and maintain the interaction with the teacher. Reflection plays a vital role in this process (see section 3).

Meanwhile, globalization has also brought benefits, such as the Common European Framework of Reference or *CEFR*, as language providers seek to define an internationally recognizable set of standards with which to communicate about language proficiency across borders. The idea of English language classes offering isolated support to students following a particular programme is out of step with the philosophy behind the CEFR and European Language Portfolio, which focus on a long-term, learner-centred approach to language development (Little 2006). The CEFR also highlights the value of socio-linguistic skills to the development of contextualized language. This approach reflects a trend in language provision towards contextual and task-based use, which is demonstrated, for instance, in Bachman’s taxonomy of language competence, in which he gives pragmatic competence equal status to organizational competence (Skehan, 1998: 160).

Below, we will stress the desirability of an approach to needs analysis through which students are encouraged to use a variety of tools, which ultimately produce greater autonomy in learning. Reflection on the use of these tools empowers students by giving them the opportunity to define their own needs. However, it also means a new role for teachers as facilitators of the language learning process. We will argue below that it is not the primary function of the language provider to shape or construct the language learner by teaching *English for Economics* or *English for Communication*. Rather, learners should be encouraged to shape themselves and contribute to the co-construction of the curriculum by expressing their needs and evaluating courses through reflective methods.

Teachers need to consider their role in language provision within this revised scenario. While students take an increasingly autonomous approach to language development, it is essential to remember that the teacher as facilitator has a fundamental pedagogical role in structuring the learning environment. Students in HE may have more choices than ever before, but they require guidance in order to understand the value of the language courses being offered by the university. Reflection is a potentially powerful means by which students can make their individual needs transparent and establish a meaningful level of dialogue with their teachers.

3. Piloting reflective approaches with language learners in HE

Murphey, Chen and Chen (2004) have called for students to be allowed “fuller participation in their learning by letting them, their identities, their communities and their development be the main subject matter of our courses” (Murphey et al., 2004: 83). This paper discusses the steps we are taking towards such ‘fuller participation’ within the Faculty of Economics at the University of Groningen, with particular reference to the role that reflection can play as a core activity embedded within and beyond language programmes.

We have used an adapted version of the Language Learning History (Murphey et al., 2004: 86) as a starting point in encouraging our students to become more autonomous in their learning of English. This development has also resulted in an on-going redefinition of our role as teachers, challenging an alternative image of teachers as knowledgeable ‘providers’ and a less than flattering image of our students as passive ‘consumers’.

In revising our IE&B provision in this way, we built on a pilot project carried out by one of the authors (Haines) at the Hanze University Groningen in 2004-2005. During the pilot, first-year students of International Communication were encouraged to write narrative language reflections in which they discussed the contexts of their language learning experiences using a shared terminology. Exercises included students practicing interactional sociolinguistic approaches (Kramsch, 1993; Roberts, Bryam, Barro, Jordan & Street, 2001). Reflections included explicit references to the relationship between language and identity through discussions of *speech communities* and *discourse worlds*. Students also used Hymes’ *SPEAKING model* to discuss recent language experiences as *speech events*, and they carried out a *conversation analysis* of part of a group meeting.

This exercise had the advantage of producing a shared terminology while highlighting the relationship between context and language in any interaction. The work they produced was invaluable to us as teachers in creating a better understanding of our students’ experience of the English language beyond the classroom, while students gained a stronger insight into the importance of appropriate language usage in a variety of settings. This seems particularly relevant to international students such as those on the IE&B programme. As Gilpin explains:

No groups are more sharply at the confluence of cultures than international students and their tutors. For these members of the educational community there is a wide range of cultural uncertainties inherent in all their interactions. Failure to recognize such uncertainties may lead to frustration on both sides.

(Gilpin 2003: 59)

Paul's reflection, for example, described the effect of culturally embedded values regarding age on his use of English:

For example, when using Kiswahili, there is a clear division on the choice of vocabularies, tone of voice, accents and the use of gestures when I speak to age mates or to older people. In Swahili, the older one becomes, the more respect they deserve, and that goes with the use of language including word choice and wording too.

Paul 2005 (Tanzanian international student)

Such reflections give the potential for mutual understanding between students and teachers as they work together to define learning needs and plan learning activities. Between 2005 and 2007, we have built upon the positive experiences of the above pilot in our revision of the IE&B programme at the University of Groningen. Further to the use of Language Learning Histories, we have made use of reflections at other key moments in the course, for instance alongside self-assessment instruments related to the CEFR, notably *DIALANG* (Alderson 2005).

4. Implementing reflective approaches with language learners in HE

In the following sections we use the example of the IE&B English course to show how such an international course has emerged in relation to its changing environment; from a pre-defined curriculum to a more diversified curriculum. Building on the pilot study described above, we show the relevance of a reflective approach to the IE&B course.

Language provision in a pre-defined curriculum

The IE&B Project was significant because the International Economics & Business programme was the first English language medium undergraduate course offered at the University of Groningen. It was launched in the academic year 2000-2001 at a relatively early stage in the development of the University's internationalisation policy. The focus of the IE&B project team at this time was that students would be able to participant successfully in the academic programme (Ashworth &

Tommasen, 2002: 399). However, student needs, including language needs, were universally considered to be central, and student feedback and evaluations were analysed at each phase of the project.

As the project progressed, the differing perspectives of the Faculty of Economics and the Language Centre teaching team about the role of the English courses in the IE&B project led to a gradual renegotiation of the form of the language support programme. There was also greater emphasis on linking the English course more closely to the context of specific content courses being followed by students. In addition, students were encouraged to see the language courses as part of their long-term professional engagement with the English language rather than a short-term IE&B course requirement. The Language Centre team had this aspect in mind when using the CEFR levels in setting assessment criteria from 2003. Against the background of an increasing emphasis on learner autonomy and the growth in the use of the Internet, there was a gradual shift towards a facilitator/language learner relationship. By 2005-2006, the IE&B project was five years old and the Faculty of Economics supported Language Centre proposals for innovative developments in language provision.

Language provision in a diversified curriculum

We now offer some insights into how we have moved from the situation described above to a language programme in which students are encouraged to take a structured critical perspective on both their progress and their long-term language needs.

Crucially, alongside regular weekly language classes, each student keeps a portfolio of work. The portfolio represents an archive that can be drawn upon at key moments for reflection purposes. Several reflection moments are built into the course. Further to reflections on *DIALANG* and the Language Learning History described above, students reflect on specific tasks such as their use of the *Academic Word List* in a writing assignment and their performance in a presentation which is digitally recorded and streamed through Blackboard so that they can review it in their own time.

Students are also expected to complete a progress report or *portfolio review* after each semester (see figure 1), which they discuss in an individual review with their teacher. Student and teacher discuss progress, revised and realistic learning goals, and practical methods to achieve these goals. Further to this, the Common European Framework is used consistently as a point of reference throughout the process, and all teachers attend regular standardization workshops in order to ensure commonality in the interpretation of language proficiency. In this way, semi-structured reflection has become an established part of the language learning process in IE&B.

<p>Portfolio Review Form: 2006-7: Semester 2</p> <p>Summary of my learning goals at the start of the second semester (refer to portfolio review at the end of the first semester):</p> <p>Description of the goals I achieved during this semester:</p> <p>Example of a piece of work that I have learned from: explanation of what I learned from this piece of work</p> <p>My revised learning goals for future study:</p>
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Figure 1: portfolio review form

Regular portfolio reviews have also been used in 2006-7 in the IB&M (International Business & Management) programme, a first-year programme that is comparable to IE&B. The following examples from IB&M portfolio reviews show the extent to which students have engaged with the task and recognize the relevance of their language learning tasks to the wider context of their studies.

Alexander, for instance, shows insight into the progress he is making and the strategies he is using to make that progress:

By applying the wordlist, my writing became more fluent and I made use of academic words almost automatically. In the end, it took me less time to reedit my text. A good example of this improvement is my topic sentence. The first version sounded like this:

“Mars is a company that tries to make use of segmentation and targeting in order to be different from its competitors.”

Through the process of editing, the topic sentence changed to:

“Mars, as a truly international company, benefits from segmentation and recognizes target groups in order to gain a competitive advantage and to differentiate itself from competitors.”

Alexander 2007 (German international student)

Soufjan not only shows awareness of an area of difficulty, but he initiates his own solution to the problem:

I am also going to improve my formal writing skills, which means improving my structure, coherence and unity. The topic sentence with supporting sentences is still a bit hard for me to put in my papers... A good exercise will be listing key words and then making a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a concluding sentence. I have already done this a couple of times, and in the end it always results in a full paragraph.

Soufjan 2007 (Dutch/Moroccan international student)

Without prompting, Jettie reflects on the value of the presentation exercise for her future career, from which we can see that in her first year, she is already identifying herself as a future business professional. She also recognizes the different contexts in which presentation skills might be important:

I think good presentation skills are really important for the future, and even more in the jobs people from our study are going to do. For example, as a manager you often have to lead meetings. In other jobs, as a consultant for example, it is also common to present your plans. I think I will also get a job in which presenting is important...

Jettie 2007 (Dutch international student)

Our understanding from this is that, as educators, we need to provide the opportunities for the learners to show us how they would like to be seen (identity), what their goals are, and what obstacles they are facing in achieving these goals. This approach enables students to understand their language learning activities both in terms of their personal development and within the wider context of their education. In this way, we believe that meaningful semi-structured reflection serves to connect the individual to the context of their academic community. It provides an opportunity for students to recognise the relationship between context and language learning in the HE curriculum.

5. Conclusion

The diversity of study options in English-language-medium Higher Education in the Netherlands implies that language providers should take a more holistic long-term perspective when designing courses, rather than supporting the language development of students solely within the scope of the programme they are currently following.

In this paper, we have offered some perspectives on how to encourage students to develop a broader and more critical perspective on their language learning, while not losing sight of their immediate context and associated educational goals. This is part of a wider discussion, in which

language learning is made more meaningful to students by providing them with a voice with which to express their needs, while encouraging them to take a more active role in managing their own learning process, using their teachers as just one of the resources available to them for this purpose. Students can use a range of resources to build on both positive and negative experiences, developing strategies for future language learning that are relevant not only to their personal development but also to the wider context within which they are studying, including exchange programmes, work placements and future careers. In recording this process through semi-structured reflection, they are clarifying their identity both as language learners and as effective participants in their specific context or speech community

The example of the ongoing development of the IE&B and IB&M programmes has served to highlight the mind-shift involved in moving from the language-support course approach towards a more holistic, situated model of language acquisition. Language learning in HE is clearly situated in a wider context than the language classroom and within a more complex set of relationships than the ‘provider’/‘consumer’ roles would often suggest. As the IE&B case shows, we are undertaking a considerable journey when we embark on such fundamental change in the relationships between those designing language provision in HE and the students we hope will benefit from them.

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The challenge of changing tongues in business university education*

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Abstract

When embarking upon a course which involves changing the existing curriculum from one language to another, effective strategies are needed to ensure that the transformation to the second language is successful. Changing tongues in business university education presents challenges and requires caution. In this paper I examine why the English version of the Bachelor program in Business Administration was discontinued at our faculty. By making a theoretical analysis of how certain components are of importance when developing an international university curriculum in which both content and language are combined (Wilkinson, 2003), recommendations can be made in order to achieve success when designing future English-taught Bachelor or Master programs. I have constructed a conceptual model in which three components have been placed: the conditions, the commitment, and competencies. In order to determine how these components influence the success or failure of a business curriculum taught in English, several face-to-face interviews were conducted with the faculty management and teaching staff, as well as students. After evaluating the results of these interviews, I can conclude that it is particularly the commitment and competencies of the faculty and staff which determines the success or failure of the English-based curriculum. Once the extent and influence of these components are fully grasped, appropriate measures can be taken by all so that the challenge of changing tongues in business university education can be met with success.

1. Introduction

When introducing a curriculum in a different tongue, the Nijmegen School of Management may have put its best foot forward, but somehow it tripped in the process and as a result, an English-taught curriculum was brought to an abrupt halt. What led to this ‘faux pas’ is to be revealed in this paper, which takes a close look at how the English track of the Bachelor program in Business Studies at the Nijmegen School of Management was implemented.

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The goal of this evaluation is to determine the overall effectiveness of the former program, an English version of an already-existing Dutch-taught curriculum in Business Studies for Bachelor students. This will be done with a view to recommending whether or not a similar educational program taught in English at the Master level can be carried out successively in the future and if so, which method of implementation would be the best in order to achieve success.

The English track was up and running in the academic year 2000. Each year only 30 students from various countries were to be recruited for admittance to an international program that had been modeled after a multi-disciplinary curriculum meant to resemble small-scale competence-based learning. Two groups were created each consisting of 15 participants and afterwards teams were formed in which assignments could be discussed throughout the semester. In teams the students were to work on a project which would be monitored by a supervisor. At the end of each semester reports would be written, and this would ultimately lead to the writing of the Bachelor thesis during the final semester.

Altogether the program ran for five years before the decision was made for it to be discontinued. Many problems were encountered in the process, not only problems pertaining to the recruitment of foreign students, but other problems as well such as matters concerning organization and administration. Unfortunately, the axe was destined to fall, and fall it did in 2003, on a program which was called a “sitting duck” by the faculty’s dean, simply biding the time until its demise. The Business Studies Bachelor program in English was short-lived, after having been fully implemented in 2000, it gradually fizzled out to a small trickle of students in 2005 which were given alternatives for attaining credits for courses that were no longer being offered.

2. Theoretical Framework

In this section, I present a conceptual model which consists of three components which may or may not contribute to the success or failure of a university program taught in English. This model has been based on recent insights in educational innovation (Johnson, 1990; Vinke 1995; Markee, 1997; Klaassen, 2001; Wilkinson, 2004; Fullan, 2007). These studies emphasize that the success of educational innovation largely depends on certain factors such as the strategies employed by the faculty management, the commitment shown by the teaching staff and the competencies they possess. In my framework, I have systematically arranged these three components which I refer to as the three Cs – conditions, commitment and competencies – into a conceptual model.

2.1 Conditions

In order to examine the first of the three Cs, the conditions, we must establish which conditions are relevant when deciding to implement an educational program in English as a second language in

university education. These conditions consist of four different dimensions, namely, the social-political situation, the current strategy employed by the university's policymakers, the funding that is made available and the organizational factors involved.

To understand how the *social-political* dimension comes into play we must take into account the stance taken by a nation and its society in regard to internationalizing education and thereby employing English as a lingua franca. Do the political decisions that are made by the government in power support the current trend in internationalizing education? Does the society itself accept English as a commonly-used second language in Higher Education? Another factor that ties into the social-political aspect is where a university is geographically located. If a university is located very close to the border of another country, this might make it attractive to those students living on the other side of the border. Or if a university is located in a country where English is widely spoken, it might seem only natural to include a second language curriculum.

A second condition which concerns the current *strategy* employed by those who serve on the university's board and those who are responsible for the decision making and development of policy in international education. Does their attitude towards programs taught in English endorse and support those who are involved? If such support is lacking, then the creation of an international learning community will be impeded. Support can be offered in many ways, such as setting up pilot programs in which English language training is offered. At the end of such a program, an official exam can be taken for which the lecturer can receive certification (Markee, 1997).

It goes without saying that one condition which is of crucial importance is the *funding* for such a project which involves international curriculum development. Funds can be used to translate course descriptions, study guides and exam regulations into English, or for financing the program when it comes to hiring additional personnel to teach courses or providing adequate staff for an international office. Naturally, English language training will also be an extra expense as a language trainer needs to be recruited and other costs such as the fee for registering for exams will need to be paid.

Likewise, when starting a second language curriculum, a first consideration should be whether or not the *organization* is in place thus ensuring that everything will run smoothly. Affairs such as processing applications, providing information on obtaining and extending visas of foreign students all need to be taken care of by establishing an efficient systematic organization. Guidelines for recruiting students from abroad should be set down, and once recruited students should be given adequate accommodation. Educational facilities must be on hand as well, such as access to internet and 'Blackboard', a digital network that fosters communication between lecturers and students.

2.2 *Commitment*

The second of the three Cs is that of commitment. In assessing how important the teaching staff's role is to coherent curriculum development, Pennington (1990) writes: "The heart of every educational enterprise, the force driving the whole enterprise towards its educational aims, is the teaching faculty." Being truly committed means that one is willing to make sacrifices and is prepared to invest extra time and energy if necessary.

In the case of implementing a new educational project in another language, it would be best to look at the form of commitment most typically-suited to such a situation; affective commitment. This is important because when curriculum innovation takes place, individuals often respond emotionally towards the changes made and these changes are inevitably accompanied by stress (Fullan, 2007). We need to take this into account if we want the implementation to be successful. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), commitment is seen as an affective or emotional attachment when the individual strongly identifies with the organization, is involved in it and enjoys membership in the organization. It includes a sense of belonging and a psychological attachment to the target of commitment (Hartmann & Bambacas, 2000).

The first way affective commitment can be cultivated is to offer *support* to the educational community. Affective commitment to a new international program can be enhanced by creating an environment in which the teaching staff feels motivated to teach in another language and rises to the challenge. If they receive *support* from the management in making this transition, there is more likelihood that the implementation of the program will be successful. Furthermore, the *communication* concerning how these changes will be implemented may bear weight on the outcome of the program's success and the general satisfaction of both the lecturers and students.

Commitment can be brought about in many ways, but if innovation is to be successful, a strategy must be developed for implementing a faculty training program. Rege Colet (2002) distinguishes between three faculty strategies:

- a program leading to formal certification
- a program of courses and workshops offering teachers opportunities to improve themselves
- continued education of teachers as life long learners

This leads us to the third component involved in determining the effectiveness of an educational program, competencies.

2.3 Competencies

The third of the 3 Cs, competencies, is of paramount importance in any kind of organizational setting (Beer et al., 1984). Competence in teaching lies at the very heart of the professional self (Gray & Wilcox, 1995). In this case, the competencies of both the teachers and the students need to be taken into account when evaluating the second language curriculum. I distinguish between three categories of competencies: *linguistic*, *didactic* and *multi-cultural competencies*.

In order for a program to be successful, we can assume that the students and the teachers need to be well-versed in the second language and that they should possess a positive attitude toward the language of instruction. This *linguistic* confidence will stand them in good stead and it will contribute to both the learning and teaching results. Therefore, it would be wise if the management were to provide both its teachers and students with learning opportunities for improving their linguistic competencies.

Everyone is affected by innovation, but what is most important is that teaching professionals experience these innovations first hand, if they are to adopt and incorporate desirable changes to their pedagogical practice. Markee (1997) believes that you cannot separate teacher development from curriculum development, and that they should be seen as one. Markee (1997: 4) states that “the adoption of a diffusionist perspective on educational change involves addressing the short- and long-term professionalization of teachers, on whom real, long-lasting change in the classroom always depends.” It is the teachers who truly play a central role in initiating and maintaining educational change.

In order to successfully communicate their knowledge of a subject in the international classroom, the lecturers must possess the *didactics* that enable them to accomplish their teaching goals. On the other hand, students themselves need to develop *learning competencies* in the second language. A shift in language immediately influences the lecturing behavior of lecturers and student learning as a result of language and lecturing behavior (Vinke, 1995, in Klaassen, 2001).

Teaching in a second language also requires being able to display a certain sensitivity towards students with different cultural backgrounds. In displaying *multi-cultural competencies* a lecturer might change his or her didactical approach when teaching international students who are not used to actively participating during lectures. The cultural background of international students is generally thought to make it difficult for them to adapt of the style of tertiary teaching adopted in the host country (Biggs, 2003). Meeting the demands of the second language curriculum is obviously not an easy challenge and competencies need to be developed on both sides. Every initiative should be taken to ensure that the skills of those involved are honed in order to achieve the best results in educational innovation (Fullan, 2007).

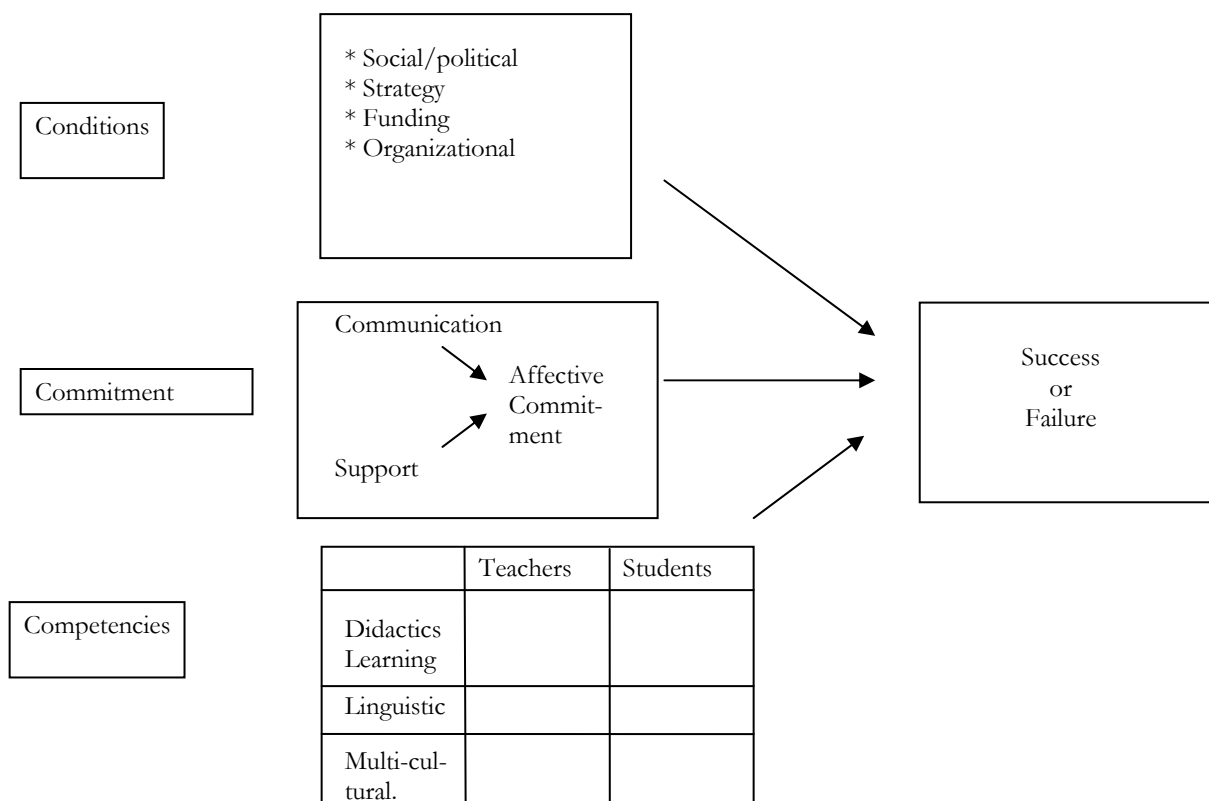


Figure 1: conceptual model: the 3 Cs.

3. Method

3.1 Evaluation Research Method

In this paper, I am engaged in evaluating the implementation of an educational program. For this purpose a summative evaluation is the most appropriate type of evaluation to use (Clarke, 1999; Rossi and Freeman, 1993). Summative evaluation is meant for making decisions about whether to continue or end a program and is always done after a curriculum has finished. It can also help when deciding to implement a similar second language program in the future by analyzing the outcomes of a study.

The method chosen for this particular research is the qualitative method in which information has mainly been obtained via face-to-face interviews with management, staff and students, alongside an analysis made by studying policy documents written in both Dutch and English. Eight faculty members offered their comments on the English track: the current dean and vice-dean of education, the former dean, the current director of the educational center and his predecessor, the first coordinator and the second coordinator of the English Bachelor track in Business Studies, and the appointed study advisor. A university board advisor was also approached in

order to obtain information concerning both future and past university policy. Most of the interviews were tape recorded and lasted about 30 minutes each. An interview guide was used in which the focus was on evaluating three areas: plan, process and product. The plan referred to the purpose of the English Bachelor track, the process referred to the implementation, and product was the curriculum itself, in other words, the educational program that was developed for teaching.

I interviewed two groups of students that were participating in the course I taught 'Communication Skills', and we often held discussions about the English program. These students were primarily Dutch and German, but to give an idea of the diversity of the nationalities, there were also Chinese, Russian, Somalian, Sudanese and Zimbabwean students. As English language consultant for the faculty, I received information that was disclosed by international students who enlisted my services.

The following documents were consulted:

- an annual evaluation report written by the University's Student Board;
- a strategic policy document written by the University Board which set out the university's ambitions in regard to developing future English language policy;
- the faculty annual evaluation reports regarding internationalization;
- an evaluation report of the English Track written by the second coordinator of the track.

3.2 Reliability, Validity and Usefulness

The following three questions need to be answered once the results have been obtained from research (t Hart et al., 2001).

- 1) Is the outcome simply a matter of coincidence (reliability)?
- 2) Does the outcome reflect the actual reality of the situation (validity)?
- 3) Does the outcome provide information for making decisions (usefulness)?

3.2.1 Reliability

It might be argued in this research project whether another researcher would have been able to achieve, for the most part, similar results in a similar setting. As an inside evaluator, who is a member of the teaching staff, I had more of an advantage than an outsider would have had since I possess a more detailed knowledge of the organization and its programs than an outsider. However, outsiders do have the advantage that they can better maintain their objectivity. In this particular case the benefit of having access to inside information outweighs the danger of being subjective. The evaluator's expertise is used to inform decision makers about the success or failure of existing programs. The ultimate goal is to contribute to the effectiveness of a second-language curriculum in

the future and not to brush crumbs under the carpet, but instead to closely examine them so as to come up with a new and better 'recipe' for success.

3.2.2 Validity

In qualitative research, it is important to determine the scope of the research by distinguishing between the external and internal validity. The internal validity in this case is high with interviews having been held with the various stakeholders and an analysis having been made of all the relevant documents. It is not certain if there is a high external validity, but we can assume that the components used in the conceptual model might also be applied to evaluations of other educational programs taught in English at other universities in the Netherlands.

3.2.3 Usefulness

It is clear that this research is practical in nature and that therefore the results and findings should provide a useful basis upon which decisions to implement English-medium programs in the future can be made. The author is well aware that other universities in the Netherlands find themselves in similar situations in which they too are struggling with the challenge of switching from the Dutch to the English curriculum. Klaassen remarks that professional development regarding teacher competencies seems to be in its infancy with respect to English-medium instruction at the tertiary level of education (Klaassen, 2001). This would indicate that there is a need to discover whether these types of English-taught programs are effective, making such an evaluation as this one useful and proving that the findings may prove applicable to other programs in comparable settings.

4. Findings and Conclusions

4.1 Conditions

If we first examine the component called 'conditions', we will notice that a favorable wind was blowing in Europe when the Bachelor program in Business Studies was started, a wind which inspired and encouraged an English curriculum. Today, we can see that English has gained ground in Europe and that it is the most widely used language in international Higher Education. In the Netherlands, English is widely spoken, not only in academic circles, but throughout the whole fabric of Dutch society. Furthermore, an abundance of educational material is available in English, making it *the* ideal language to convey scholarly knowledge and a natural choice for preparing students for an international career in a globalizing world (Van Leeuwen & Wilkinson, 2003). More than a decade ago, the former Dutch Minister of Education, Jo Ritzen, and current chair of the university board in Maastricht, had even suggested that all courses be taught in English at university level. In the year 2000, the Bachelor and Master (BaMa) structure was being introduced in Europe, creating a different

educational landscape that was taking on a new shape, one in which English was destined to play a role as the ‘lingua academica’. With the disappearance of the borders as decreed by the Council of Europe, the citizens of Europe have been subsequently encouraged to cross the line and to learn other languages. All in all, this has been conducive for international education, and hence the policy of offering programs in English has been well-endorsed within a *social-political* context (Hall and Eggington, 2000).

However, when it came to setting international targets and making plans for implementing an English program there was no ‘real business plan.’ According to the current dean of the faculty, who took the final decision to stop “the English track”, the program never even had the official status it should have received, and although it was started with the best of intentions, it was like “a sitting duck” waiting to be shot. Because no real *strategy* for success had been developed, it was as the current director of the Education Center put it, “a mission impossible”. No support could be received from the University Board since matters had not been organized at the central level. From the very start, the policy makers had made it clear that they were only in favor of the starting Master’s programs in English, but not Bachelor’s. Hence, the English track of the Bachelor in Business Studies, without having received blessings from the University board, and without any official status, seems to have been doomed from the start. When decisions are made behind the scenes, a type of power is exercised in what is sometimes referred to as ‘non-decision making’ (Blasé & Anderson, 1995). It appears that even though the program organizers did not have the support at the central level, they went ahead anyway with the English program, even though no official decision had been taken to give them the go ahead. In this sense, they were guilty of proceeding without the approval that normally would have been given at the start.

If we take an even closer look, we will soon ascertain that the existing conditions were a far cry from ideal where *funding* was concerned. During an interview, the former dean of the faculty reflected on the time when he had been responsible for the educational program. He commented in general on what he termed as the “problem of capacity”, attributing the failure of the track to a lack of funding. According to him, the decision to bring the English-taught program to a halt was taken largely because the faculty had found itself in dire straits, having contracted too many new teachers and not possessing the resources to finance the program. The current director of the education center, who is also a lecturer in economics, was keen to comment during the interview held with him that it was too expensive to teach such small groups and to have to pay high prices for having the material translated from Dutch into English.

When evaluating the *organizational* aspects of the program, the following information was retrieved from a short interim evaluation written in February 2002 by the first coordinator of the English Bachelor track. Here he mentions how the faculty was struggling with organizational

problems, particularly in the communication between the lecturers, the secretariat and the educational center. Problems had arisen with the intranet so that the student registration did not match the figures and course exams had not been handed in on time by the teachers. These exams should be sent to the student administration two weeks in advance to allow ample time for copying. Perhaps this was due to the difficulty the lecturers had in formulating the exam questions in English. There were also problems with the scheduling of classes and finding enough classrooms. In retrospect, the former director of the educational center also commented on how the International Office had had to improvise when dealing with matters such as securing housing and visas for the students. He stated that there was not a real structural framework which the new second language curriculum could fall back on. Because the program did not enjoy a formal status and was not registered as a program in its own right, it suffered from not having the support it should have had. The second coordinator of the program remarked “The fact that the program has been a hidden program has slowed down its growth and has demotivated the teachers. It is very difficult to advertise a program that does not exist.” This exemplifies the fact that the program was a stream within a Dutch program, and was not able to stand on its own.

4.2 Commitment

When we examine the degree of commitment that was shown in an effort to make the program a success, there seems to not have been enough. Looking back in retrospect, the former director of the faculty’s education center at the time wrote in a letter to the author that “as far as I can recall, most of the staff from Business Studies were not in favor of an English-taught program.” He recalled that “it is bizarre when you realize that the educational program was for the most part organized by a small group of young and enthusiastic teachers, whereas the senior lecturers, and in particular, most of the professors, had other priorities.” On the other hand, this situation resulted from the stance the management had taken at the time, which did not focus on creating commitment and *support* for the educational program. The current director of the education center stated in an interview that the English track was “just started without any preparation”. As a lecturer at the time, he felt that there had been no foresight and not enough commitment. The second coordinator of the program recommended that the English track be maintained but he added that to keep it in its current state would be “a huge mistake”. Furthermore, he remarked that “the English track is still a fairly new program that needs to be fine-tuned and requires lots of attention and commitment. I would recommend to quickly separate the English track from the Dutch to make it into a real program. That is, in my opinion, the only way to make it sustainable and satisfying for the teacher, the students, as well as the school and the University.”

All of these individuals or stakeholders belonged to an educational network in which the connections between them played an important role in the success or failure of this educational innovation. The coordinator of the program pleads here for a new curriculum; one freed from the harnesses of the old, a step forward which involves all cultures, one worthy of international merit. As Kennedy and Kennedy (1998: 456) put it: “it is unwise to ignore cultural factors both in the management of change and in making judgments about relative success or failure of change projects, elusive though such cultural factors may be.”

4.3 Competencies

When it comes to competencies, the former director of the education center mentions that because the lecturers taught the students in an old-fashioned and classical manner, rather than using a style of teaching in which they could facilitate the learning process in the roles assumed by coaches and supervisors, their inadequacies in English were even more pronounced. This points to problems in the area of both *teacher and student competencies*.

In essence, a situation developed in which the staff had been forced to put a great deal of effort into an English-taught program that was not selling what it had promised at the onset. As a result, the students who were enrolled in the English track were quick to disclose their discontent, having enrolled in a program that contrasted starkly with a program they had been expecting to receive. The University Board of Students suggested in their evaluation report that if more Master's programs are to be taught in English, then students should be given the opportunity in the Bachelor's programs to participate in academic writing classes to improve their English. Apparently, their sentiments reflected this lack of support.

Not much of an international atmosphere could be detected at the faculty which may have otherwise inspired these foreign students. Many students lacked *linguistic competency* in English, especially the Chinese, and “there were hardly any inspiring projects to fling one's soul and vigor into”. Many of the teachers also lacked fluency in English, and the German students, who had expected an international educational program, complained about the quality of the Dutch lecturers' English. The University Board of Students were of the opinion that if lecturers scored insufficiently on a test, that they should enroll in a course that would enable them to obtain the Cambridge Proficiency in English. In their eyes, this certificate indicates whether or not a lecturer has a sufficient command of the English language and whether or not they are capable of teaching at the university.

Despite these odds, a sense of community was created amongst the international students, creating a closely-knit group. This in turn provided a stimulating setting for learning in a *multi-cultural* environment. Moments of cultural exchange were abundant, and for the Dutch students it must have been an enriching experience to have the foreign students in their midst. However, when it came to

working in teams there was sometimes the tendency for “birds of a feather to flock together”. If the Chinese students were linguistically weaker than the Dutch in English, then this might be experienced as a obstacle in the path of academic progress, hence endangering the deadlines for the myriad of reports that had to be written.

The University Board of Students stated in their paper on internationalization in February 2006, that the quality of education should not suffer because more and more courses are being taught in English. They believe that if English enhances the value of the educational program, and if the quality of the program does not deteriorate as a result, that more courses should be taught in English. By the same token, they believe that it is of great importance that both the students and the lecturers have a sufficient command of the language in order to hold discussions of a high academic nature.

As for the Dutch lecturers, many of them were not used to having foreign students in the classroom. Having to teach for the first time in English, and not possessing always the efficient *didactic* skills to stand them in good stead, they would inevitably fall prey to a lack of empathy towards the foreign students. “To be a successful intercultural communicator, you must develop empathy, and that can be cultivated only if you become sensitive to the values and customs of the culture with which you are interacting” (Samovar, Porter & Stefani, 1998: 261). The University Board of Students stated that lecturers who have taught abroad and who have experience in teaching in English should be preferred to those who have not had this experience. Furthermore, the lecturers should **want** to teach in English. As the second coordinator revealed, “some people in our school do not like or do not want to teach in English; forcing them to teach in the English track because this latter should mimic the Dutch one has generated lots of frustration among students as well as among semester coordinators. More freedom in the English track curriculum will allow teachers to choose or not to teach in English, leading to a more adapted program... and to more enthusiastic teachers.”

Figure 2 shows the results of this research. We can conclude that only the social-political conditions were favorable and that particularly the problems with funding, support and organization contributed to the demise of the program.

4. Conclusions

In this paper it is shown that the three Cs, conditions, commitment and competencies, all play an important role in whether an English-taught program is successful or not. However, it is essential that we get the combination right. How this should be done depends on what the needs are of the university, faculty and students. If the teachers need to develop their competencies in, for example, lecturing in English, then attention must be given to this aspect and training should be provided. If they need to attain a higher level of language proficiency, then Cambridge courses can be organized to help them achieve this. If they need to improve their didactics or intercultural skills then another

course can be offered that focuses on this aspect or classes can be monitored by an educational specialist. In addition, if the university feels it needs to internationalize, then exchanges between various educational partners can be arranged. If students need support so that their learning behavior improves, then this support should be included in the curriculum design. As the faculty's study advisor for the international students put it, "it is more than simply translating the words from Dutch into English". Changing from one tongue to another takes time and patience and it requires the concerted efforts of all those involved. This is where the second C comes in, that of commitment. In the end much more can be gained than just expertise and knowledge. Learning by assimilating content through a second language is a challenging and worthwhile experience for all those involved in the educational process.

Components	Dimensions	Characteristics	+/-
Conditions	Soc.-political	BaMa structure introduced Developments elsewhere in English Geographical location	+ + +
	Strategy	No official status received Need for expansion Intl. Office No help from external relations	- - -
	Funding	Faculty in dire straits Expensive small groups Translation costs high	- - -
	Organizational	Intl. students close-knit group Accommodation shortage Problems in communication, intranet, ill-equipped for dealing with students	+ - -
Commitment	Communication	Lacking between lecturers and educational center Students suffered from mistakes made IM Master confused with Bus. BA	- - -
	Support	New young teachers in favor of intl. curriculum Accreditation verdict	+ -
Competencies	Didactics Teachers	Inexperienced lecturers	-
	Linguistic Teachers	Lack of expertise in teaching in English	-
	Multi-cultural Teachers	Not much empathy shown from Dutch lecturers	-
	Learning Students	Effective learning behavior	-
	Linguistic Students	Some problems in writing in English	-
	Multi-cultural Students	Stimulating environment for learning	+

Figure 2: Findings and Conclusion

5. Recommendations and Discussion

When making recommendations for future programs in English, a dialogue needs to be created among those involved so that evaluation findings such as these can be used to improve the conditions, the competencies and the commitment. Once this dialogue has begun then decisions need to be taken. An important strategic decision for a university is to decide whether a program is simply taught in English, with no intention to improve linguistic competence, or whether a program is taught to teach content and language, with the aim that students meet both content and language goals (Wilkinson, 2005). When designing a program, several ingredients will prove valuable and will inevitably lead to the successful implementation of a second language program. These ingredients can be ordered as follows in importance:

- first and foremost, substantial funding for the program needs to be available
- a front analysis needs to be made at the start before implementation
- full recognition and support from the university board
- professional language and didactic training for teaching staff
- English language skills training for students and academic writing support
- a well-staffed and efficient international office must be set up
- international exchanges of both students and faculty promote cultural understanding

Even though the findings seem to indicate that the implementation of the English track in the Bachelor program failed in some areas, still along the way much was learned. Learning from evaluation findings is what evaluation is all about. “If no change follows from evaluation what is the reason for doing it in the first place?” (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005: 289). The next time, equipped with a better recipe, success can be achieved. The second language program of the discontinued Bachelor track can serve to pave the way in the future for Master programs taught in English. With this in mind, it is only a matter of knowing what the strengths and weaknesses of these new programs are and making sure that the three Cs, whose ingredients consist of the conditions, competencies, and commitment, are included. These components, in combination with the knowledge gained by experience, can help make for a more effective mix, a mix that has perhaps resulted from trial and error, but one obtained by having used a new and improved recipe for rising to the challenge of changing tongues in business university education.

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When European Studies met English: A practitioner's view on content and language integrated learning*

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Abstract

The paper reports on the development of an English language skills training programme delivered by language tutors as part of the first year of a European Studies bachelors' programme. The institutional context and the set-up of the skills training are outlined, and the challenges and opportunities of a content and language integrated approach are discussed. The paper concludes that several factors are vital for the success of embedding a language skills training in a discipline: a careful needs analysis at the outset; continuous, open communication between the collaborating faculty and language centre staff; the willingness and the possibility to invest time and money in the development of adequate materials; and a certain level of continuity.

1. Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has proven its usefulness in institutions of higher education for many years, both in Europe (van Leeuwen & Wilkinson, 2003) and all over the world (Wilkinson, 2004). Maastricht University has a long history of CLIL at various faculties (Wilkinson, 2003; Wilkinson & Zegers, 2005; Zegers & Lawrence, 2005).

This paper presents an example of successful collaboration between the Language Centre and the Faculty of Arts & Social Sciences at Maastricht University, namely the English language skills training provided in the European Studies programme. Several lessons can be learnt from this collaboration, which has been fruitful as well as a challenge for several years.

The European Studies BA programme at Maastricht University's Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences was set up in 2002. The English-medium programme attracts approximately 300 first year students each year, most of whom have Dutch or German as their native language. The English

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language skills training, which is at the moment primarily conducted in the first year of the three-year programme, is provided by the English Department of the university's Language Centre.

In order to illustrate the development of the English language skills training, first, the context and the parameters of the training will be sketched. Second, the implications for building a lasting partnership in CLIL will be discussed. Finally, future perspectives will be discussed and a conclusion will be drawn.

2. English language skills training for European Studies students

The focus of the European Studies programme in the first year is on the social, cultural and material diversity of Europe. This topic is explored from the perspectives of various disciplines, including history, philosophy, social and political sciences, science and technology studies, economics, and studies in international relations. In the second year, the focus shifts to a more political/economic/legal perspective of practical implications of diversity for the European integration process. In the third year, the role of Europe as a global player, including social, economic and cultural aspects, is analysed. Parallel to their content courses, students follow various skills trainings, covering academic and professional skills as well as English language skills (in the first year) and any other European language (in the second and third year).¹

The number of hours reserved for English language skills training in the programme has been reduced over the years (see table 1 below). It is likely that the size of the training will be reduced again in the academic year 2006-2007; however, the current situation in 2005-2006, looks as follows: English language skills training, which combines an introduction to academic writing and a presentation skills training, is offered as a compulsory part of the study programme during the second until the fifth month of the first year. The first part of the training is four weeks long, and students receive 1.5 ECTS (study points) upon successful completion, while the second part is 7 weeks long, and worth 3 ECTS. The third four-week block is worth 1.5 ECTS again. In order to obtain the ECTS for each training part, students have to be present in all tutorial sessions, as well as participate actively and hand in a satisfactory paper at the end.

Like most teaching at Maastricht University, the skills training provided by the Language Centre takes place in small groups of max. 15 students and is very student-centred. Principles of Problem Based Learning (PBL, cf. Barrows, 1996; Moust, Bouhuijs, & Schmidt, 2001; Schmidt, 1983) are applied as much as possible; for example, students are responsible for chairing the sessions and self-directed learning, with a language tutor supporting and facilitating the discussion when necessary. It has been argued that PBL is not the most effective approach to language teaching, especially in short courses as those offered at Maastricht University (Lawrence, 2005). In practice, in most English

language skills trainings the Language Centre does not follow all steps of the PBL approach but rather uses elements of it which have proven to be useful.

The content of the skills training for European Studies students has changed quite considerably over the years of its existence. While at birth the training paid much more attention to general aspects of grammar and English language, the financial situation of the faculty as well as student feedback have made the faculty and the Language Centre decide to concentrate on academic writing, presentations skills and the use of peer feedback. At the same time, a gradual shift to more and more content and language integrated learning has taken place. Courses for other languages offered by the Language Centre focus more on language training per se, including grammar, pronunciation and communication, usually covering a wide variety of conversational topics. In contrast, most English language skills trainings are much more tailored to the various disciplines in which they are offered. Experience has shown that writing instruction is most beneficial where it does not just address specific problem areas but sees writing as culturally and socially situated. Therefore, by focusing on topics which students discuss in their content parallel courses as well as on genres which students will be expected to master in the course of their studies, the skills trainings can much better meet the usually high expectations which students have towards their English language training.

Over several years, the English department of the Language Centre and the faculty staff have been able to establish an example of fruitful collaboration and integration. The second block of the English language skills training has become an integral part of the first year of the European Studies programme and is popular among both students and teaching staff. For five weeks, students receive English language skills training once a week for two hours. The focus lies on academic writing skills and presentation skills, using concepts and exploring topics which the students discuss in their parallel content tutorials on the diversity of the historical developments in different European countries. The last two group sessions in weeks six and seven are organised as 3.5-hour workshops. During these workshops, students present the paper they have been working on throughout the block, with both their content and their language tutor present. The presentations are assessed jointly by the content and language tutors. At the end of the programme, students submit a written assignment, which again is assessed jointly by content and language tutors.

The set-up and carrying out of English language skills training for European Studies students are influenced by the wider institutional context. According to current Dutch legislation, it is impossible for institutions of higher education to screen the entry level of English of students from the Netherlands and other EU countries, even though such an entry assessment would look like a sensible measure for a programme where teaching and learning take place through the medium of English. Higher education must in principle be accessible for everyone. This results in a great

heterogeneity in the students' level of English proficiency, which makes it difficult or even impossible to develop teaching materials that are challenging for all students. Van Leeuwen (2006) points out that teaching staff and even students at Maastricht University have repeatedly asked for obligatory screening at entry to university in order to make differences in language levels between students smaller and, thus, studying more enjoyable and effective. However, it should be noted that even if it were possible to ask students to take a test at entry, there may be logistical difficulties in placing them into level-specific English language skills groups that would be different from students' content groups. Despite these logistical obstacles, screening at entry may have yet another positive side effect: it may help in making students aware of their actual level of proficiency in both speaking and writing. Many students entering university seriously overestimate their academic writing ability. Having been exposed to American television and other English-speaking media for years, Dutch students in particular often feel very confident about participating actively in a small group in a teaching and learning setting. In fact, their conversational language skills may indeed be quite sufficient for functioning in a higher education setting. However, while their basic interpersonal communicative skills, or BICS (Cummins, 1979, 1984, 2000), may be quite satisfactory, many students miss what Cummins calls cognitive academic language proficiency, or CALP. Consequently, they may only to a limited extent be aware of the discourse rules of the discipline they are about to enter, and even less able to apply these rules. Obviously, English language skills training has to take these context parameters into account if it is to be effective.

3. Implications for building a lasting partnership

When asking for the implications of this example of challenging and yet fruitful collaboration between a faculty and a language centre, we can first look at the challenges everyone who wants to go down the road of content and language integrated teaching will encounter. These lead to prerequisites for success which have proved essential in our situation and we believe could be applied in other institutions of higher education.

As for the challenges, which might in some cases better be called problems, four of them seem to be especially influential in the success or failure of a content and language integrated programme: needs analysis, clearly formulated goals and expectations, material development, and continuity. As several factors and partners depend on each other a good balance needs to be found. If one of these factors or partners is missing, the balance and, thus, the success of the whole training is in jeopardy.

First, it seems obvious that, before a teaching programme is set up, students' needs are assessed in depth. This is true even if the needs and wishes as perceived by the students may differ significantly from their language tutors' view: In our case, for example, students have always made

known that they enjoy the presentation skills training and wish to focus more on that, while the language tutors agree that students need support for writing academic papers in the first place. The importance of a needs assessment is also not lessened by the fact that the practice of the hectic everyday life in many institutions of higher education may look different. New programmes are often set up merely based on the perceived needs of students. In the case of the European Studies English language skills training, no thorough student needs analysis was carried out at the onset of the programme. Ironically, at the same time, at many points during the collaboration process much attention was given to student evaluation at the end of each block. Faculty staff admit that skills trainings in general (including computer skills, study skills, etc.) are not popular with students. Nevertheless, the students' often critical evaluations of the English language training skills (traditionally criticising the level of the training as too low and questioning the usefulness of various tasks) have been given much weight in faculty decisions for several, sometimes considerable cuts in the number of contact hours provided. More than at other faculties, where the size of skills training has been more stable, this has made constant adaptations of both materials and teaching approaches necessary, which in turn makes it difficult to compare student evaluations in various year. This also poses the question of more effective tools for student assessment and evaluation. Which tools would be most reliable, however, still needs to be identified, as there are advantages and disadvantages connected with standardised, internationally recognised language proficiency tests as well as specifically developed tests (cf. Wilkinson & Zegers, 2006).

Second, the faculty, as the client, should take the time to formulate clear goals, expectations and outcomes of the training. Ideally, this should of course be negotiated with the language centre or other cooperation partner in the CLIL programme, and agreed upon by both parties. It is vital to see whether a faculty's expectations are realistic given its budget and, consequently, the time available for skills training. The formulation of expectations should also include a discussion of the scope and the limitations of the responsibilities of both content and language tutors. This is of particular importance when it comes to the assessment of certain aspects of written assignments. Especially in this area, there needs to be constant communication between the partners regarding these responsibilities and the respective tolerance of overlap, especially in a situation where views on areas of the academic discourse differ between content and language tutors or even between the content tutors within a faculty. Therefore, professional development activities, ideally jointly by content and language tutors, such as regular marking workshops where tutors discuss their assessment standards and approaches, or discussion sessions where tutors reflect on and exchange their views on effective academic papers, should be a basic component of a successful, lasting CLIL programme.

Regarding issues of time, a third important aspect comes into play. Instructors and material developers involved in CLIL are usually aware that the development of appropriate teaching

materials needs time. Developing tailor-made materials that match the specific learning needs of a specific target audience is a time-consuming and, thus, costly endeavour. However, those faculty staff members who might be at the beginning of a close collaboration project with language instructors might not be aware of this need. Consequently, the tutors who are responsible for material development (i.e., at Maastricht University, the Language Centre tutors), need to communicate clearly that even seemingly small changes like the timing of the skills training in relation to the rest of the content programme might make major changes in the materials necessary. Only through constant investment in the adaptation of materials can it be ensured that the language skills training is closely linked in with the content that students deal with in the same block.

Finally, it has become obvious that a certain degree of continuity will help to make a CLIL programme successful. This includes continuity on both institutional and individual levels and at all stages of the process from the planning of a training programme to the administration and publication of the final results. This continuity is vital for all participants involved from programme directors and coordinators to the exam administration, and to individual tutors. Experiences from previous years are very helpful, as is knowledge about a wide range of issues, from the disciplinary academic discourse rules to informal communication channels, to staff responsibilities and constraints. Insight into these aspects on both sides is invaluable in the hectic middle of an English language skills training block involving more than 300 students and 20 faculty & Language Centre teaching staff. In addition, the importance of personal relationships, which can only grow over a longer period of time, should not be underestimated. It is likely that only collaboration over several years may result in overcoming cross-disciplinary boundaries and misunderstandings. Such collaboration may also be a prerequisite for a better understanding of differing views on and approaches to academic writing, especially in the context of a higher education programme with a strong interdisciplinary character.

4. Future perspectives and conclusion

As can be seen in table 1, the training programme discussed in this paper has been reduced each year for the past three years. This shows a vicious circle; the training has been cut back again and again, with the faculty basing its decision not only on financial reasons but also heavily on critical student feedback (which, as has been argued, may not always be justified but be a result of overoptimistic self-perceptions and the general unpopularity of skills trainings). It remains to be seen, however, how the Language Centre can provide helpful English language skills training if it is forced to not only to adapt but also reduce the training programme each year. As mentioned above, in contrast to students' expectations, it is virtually impossible to achieve more than raising awareness of the challenges of academic writing in particular, as learning how to write academically in a specific discipline is a long

process. However, it is sometimes difficult for language tutors to make this clear to both students and faculty members.

Table 1: Development of English language skills training since 2004

Academic year	Blocks with parallel language skills training (year 1)
2004-05	4 out of 6
2005-06	3 out of 6
2006-07	2 out of 6
2007-08	2 out of 6
2008-09	(expected: 1 out of 6)

While there is a considerable amount of criticism with regard to the English language skills training, at the same time, there seems to be an opposite development, too. Second and third year students, who received up to twice the number of contact hours when they were in their first year as compared to the present cohort, have recently approached the faculty signaling that they do not feel confident with writing academic papers in English. Therefore, the Language Centre has recently conducted a pilot with individual consultations with second year students. In this way, the faculty and the Language Centre hope to offer students effective language support, which will both improve the students' writing and let them see the benefit of the Language Centre's services. It remains to be seen whether this kind of support, minimal as it might seem, will satisfy students' needs and will help them to improve the quality of their academic writing.

To conclude, it has become obvious that many aspects come together to form a basis for meaningful integration of content and language teaching and successful collaboration, as CLIL costs time and, consequently, money. Constant open communication between the collaborating partners can be seen as the vital ingredient for a relationship that is marked by mutual understanding and appreciation of shared perspectives as well as differences. Clear guidelines and agreements about the sometimes overlapping responsibilities for teaching and assessing various aspects of content and language in oral and, even more importantly, written assignment is essential in order to avoid confusion and possible frustration among both students and teaching staff

Apart from constant open communication, continuous professional development should be an indispensable part of working in an institution of higher education. Even more so, where teaching staff work together across boundaries of faculties and service institutions, investment in regular marking workshops and other in-house and external training activities, ideally jointly with the tutors

of both partners, should be obligatory. It seems obvious that only in this way can consensus about assessment procedures and standards be reached and kept. In addition, an awareness of different approaches to teaching academic writing will be developed in both faculty and Language Centre teaching staff.

Of course, the programme described here could be improved in many areas. In an ideal world, without time and financial constraints, much closer collaboration in teaching and assessment would be possible. For the time being, it seems that the success of CLIL programmes in many institutions of higher education depends on the enthusiasm and willingness to invest of individuals – both teachers and administrators.

Notes

¹ For detailed information on the course content, see

<http://www.unimaas.nl/default.asp?template=werkveld.htm&id=0EUVMQDG15Q7JF46B677&taal=en>

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